BAD THOUGHTS, BAD ACTIONS: EXPLORING WORKPLACE EGO THREAT
MANAGEMENT THROUGH SOCIAL MEDIA

Elijah C. Earl

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts

Department of Psychology

Central Michigan University
Mount Pleasant, Michigan
March 2014

ACKNOWLEDGEMNTS

ABSTRACT

BAD THOUGHTS, BAD ACTIONS: EXPLORING WORKPLACE EGO THREAT
MANAGEMENT THROUGH SOCIAL MEDIA

by Elijah C. Earl

Social media use has grown rapidly over the past several years. This increased usage has led to context collapse, a phenomenon wherein the boundaries between work and social life become less distinct. The current study, based upon existing evidence within attribution, social exchange, and ego threat theories, examines the blurring of these lines in a work-related context. Of particular interest are unprofessional behaviors that promote the development of negative impressions of the individual (e.g., complaining about one's coworkers) on social media. Using an archival dataset consisting of 246 participants of varying occupations recruited through the Study Response Project, it was expected that the personality traits of hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity would be positively linked to displays of these unprofessional behaviors on social media. These expectations were supported, and the relationship between personality traits and unprofessional social media behaviors was mediated by interactional justice. Supervisor contact was hypothesized to moderate the relationship between interactional justice and unprofessional behaviors on social media, such that those in contact with their supervisor through social media would exhibit more unprofessional behavior after having perceived interactional injustice. While contact did moderate this relationship, the direction of this moderation ran counter to expectations. Exploratory variables of social media management and emotion regulation were tested, and results, limitations, and future research directions are provided.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Overview

In recent years, social media websites such as Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn have rapidly increased in popularity. As of 2012, nearly half of adults in the United States and 65% of global internet users maintained some type of social media profile (Madden & Zickhur, 2011). Facebook, by far the largest of these sites, boasts over one billion monthly active users worldwide (Whittaker, 2012). As these networks proliferate and diversify, however, the lines between users' work, family, and personal lives become blurred. This phenomenon is known as context collapse (Goffman, 1959). Context collapse makes selective self-presentation, wherein an individual tailors his or her presentation tactics according to a perceived audience, a much more challenging process. Historically, an individual was able to present him or herself in a particular way to an audience in one context (e.g., on a date), and in a completely different way to another audience in a different context (e.g., at work).

Now, with the advent of social media, selective self-presentation (and by extension, impression management) has become more difficult. People often choose to connect not only with their friends and relatives through social media, but also with their coworkers, supervisors, or clients. This contributes to a decline in private, individualized communication. The traditional one-to-one pattern of communiqué becomes less common, as social media favors a one-to-many distribution of information (Boyd, 2008). Adding to these difficulties is the fact that social media is highly searchable. Even a cursory online search may lead to a user's profile, which can contain information that was not intended for the viewer to access. This wide dissemination of

1

information may lead to interpersonal tensions (Binder, Howes, & Sutcliffe, 2009), and raises issues of communication privacy (Houghton & Joinson, 2010; Vitak & Ellison, 2013).

Users may regard context collapse and the problems it presents in different ways. Some users choose not to acknowledge context collapse as a problem, instead opting to treat public channels as being more private than they actually are. They often distribute content meant only for a few specific people to their entire network (Marwick & Boyd, 2011). Others try to maintain their privacy, taking a "lowest common denominator" approach, wherein they post only the amount of information that would be acceptable to share with individuals for whom the message is not intended but would nonetheless receive that message (Hogan, 2010). The choice in which of these tactics to employ can be influenced by the user's associations through social media. If an employee is connected with a coworker or supervisor through social media, those work contacts have access to that user's content – content that may not necessarily portray the employee in a positive light. If a supervisor views this content, it may facilitate the formation of a negative impression of the employee, thereby leading to a negative reputation amongst work contacts (Zinko, 2013; Zinko, Ferris, Blass, & Laird, 2007). Thus, it is important to understand these unprofessional social media behaviors, especially if work contacts such as supervisors are able to view them, as they may have numerous implications for both the employee and the organization. Over 31% of companies now track employee use of social media, and misuse of the technology can have substantial negative impacts on an employee's work life (Society for Human Resource Management, 2012). Possibilities include increased interpersonal conflict, being passed over for promotion, termination, or a multitude of other sanctions. Even the organization's reputation may be affected if an employee chooses to publicize negative content about himself or the company (Society for Human Resource Management, 2012).

Unprofessional Social Media Behaviors

The current study seeks to examine employees' online behaviors that can lead to negative impression formation, referred to herein as "unprofessional social media behaviors." The constitution of "unprofessional behavior" can vary due to a number of factors, including the employee's career stage, level of experience, setting, and situation (Arnold, 2002). Generally speaking, however, unprofessional behaviors are those actions carried out by an employee that not only run counter to expected norms of the working environment, but promote negative appraisals of that employee (Weissman, 2003). Examples of such behaviors include, but are not limited to, antagonizing others, spreading rumors, cheating, or even physical violence. An employee engaging in unprofessional behavior may be viewed by his peers, supervisors, or clients as acting in an inappropriate, negative, or otherwise unbecoming manner. These unfavorable perceptions can lead to a variety of negative outcomes, including interpersonal conflict, negative reputation, and client mistrust (Ratanawongsa, Wright, & Carrese, 2008).

Unprofessional behaviors are not necessarily confined to the workplace. Employees act as representatives of their respective organizations, and so can impact their professional lives through actions occurring outside of normal work contexts. Many organizations hold employees accountable for actions taken separate of the workplace, and unprofessional conduct in social settings has led to organizational repercussions (e.g., Savitz, 2011). As online communication becomes an increasing component of employee's lives, the opportunity for unprofessional conduct within an online environment also grows. Therefore, the current study emphasizes unprofessional behaviors that occur online, particularly those that take place on social media websites.

The behaviors examined here reflect a wide range of actions that may be considered unprofessional in many organizational settings. Employees may mention their jobs on social media, and these references may not always promote positive impressions of the employees, their coworkers, or the organizations responsible for their employment. For instance, an employee's complaints about a coworker or supervisor may draw negative attention to that individual. Criticizing a workspace may promote unfavorable impressions of the organization. Depictions of employees' engagement in excessive alcohol consumption, illicit drug use, or unlawful behaviors may also facilitate negative impressions. Although social media does not allow for more extreme exhibitions of unprofessional behaviors (i.e., physical violence), relational violence and other antagonistic behaviors (such as those described above) are not only possible, but common amongst social media users (Walker, 2010).

The Current Study

Because of social media's prevalence and the impacts it can have at both the individual and organizational levels, understanding the factors that influence the relationships between employees, social media, and the organization is important. Much research has been devoted to organizational use of social media (e.g., Society for Human Resource Management, 2012), and a growing number of organizations and political figures have recognized the power of social media in public relations and impression management (e.g., Bennet, 2012; Miller & Tucker, 2013; Winberg, de Ruyter, Dellorocas, Buck, & Keeling, 2013). However, there is thus far a dearth of literature examining the average employee's use of the medium as an impression management tool.

Preliminary evidence has suggested that certain personality traits (such as narcissism) are associated with specific social media behaviors (e.g., Leung, 2013; Ljepava, Orr, Locke, & Ross,

2013). The current study aims to extend this research to the individual characteristics of hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity. Specifically, this study seeks to determine how these traits relate to unprofessional social media behaviors. In addition to these relationships, the mechanism by which these traits affect unprofessional social media behaviors will be examined. Specifically, it is expected that these traits will be associated with the perception of interactional injustice, consistent with attribution theory and social exchange theory. This, in turn, spurs the uploading of unprofessional content on social media that has the potential to facilitate negative impressions of the individual. Finally, I will investigate whether employees who are in contact with their supervisors through social media display increased unprofessional social media behaviors, under the assumption that those who perceive injustice in the workplace will be both motivated to draw attention to that injustice and less inclined to maintain a positive professional impression.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Hostility

There are certain personality traits that may predispose an employee to displays of unprofessional content on social media. The first to be examined here is hostility. Individuals high in hostility tend to experience an increased frequency of anger, grudges, and other feelings of ill-will towards others (Buss & Perry, 1992). Hostile individuals have a propensity to perceive aggressive interactions as common amongst others, and consequently expect that most interpersonal interactions will contain both hostility and its corollary, aggression (Bushman & Anderson, 2002; Dodge & Coie, 1987). These expectations have been shown to lead to negative emotions and are often antecedents to dysfunctional interpersonal interactions (Orobio de Castro, Veerman, Koops, Bosch, & Monshouwer, 2002; Spector, 2011).

Self-handicapping

Dysfunctional interpersonal interactions may result in part from methods a hostile individual employs in order to ward off ego threat and manage impressions. According to impression management theory, in any interpersonal situation, individuals will attempt to control the impressions others form of them (Goffman, 1959; Schlenker, 2003). Additionally, in any performance situation, including work tasks, self-esteem and ego are at risk of degradation and thus likely to be perceived as being threatened (Hirt, Deppe, & Gordon, 1991). Therefore, the individual is motivated to preemptively deter ego threats and maintain high self-esteem. One method of accomplishing this is through self-handicapping, a behavior that has been linked to high trait hostility (Harris, Snyder, Higgins, & Schrag, 1986). Self-handicapping is an ego and reputation-defensive action or claim that enhances the opportunity to externalize failure and

internalize success before an outcome is determined (Shepperd & Arkin, 1990). Unlike an excuse, which is created after a performance event, self-handicapping is a proactive behavior (McCrea, 2008). Via self-handicapping, a person creates an environment that both he and others perceive as hostile and full of adversity in order to provide excuses for his failures and to magnify his successes. This is achieved through taking advantage of the augmenting and discounting principles of attribution. If the individual succeeds in spite of the obstacle, attributions to his ability can be augmented. In the event of failure, lack of ability can be discounted as a cause of the outcome, as another cause (the created obstacle) is present (Kelley, 1973).

Self-handicapping is comprised of two distinct forms. Self-reported, or coping, self-handicapping occurs when an individual attempts to attribute failure to an internal source that is outside of his control such as illness, fatigue, or mood. Behavioral (also known as acquired) self-handicapping refers to situations in which the individual constructs external impediments that reduce the probability of positive task outcomes (Leary & Shepperd, 1986). For instance, by claiming that a coworker is incompetent or lazy, a hostile employee protects his ego by shifting others' attention to that coworker. Once this occurs, both the audience and the employee are more likely to attribute any failure to the coworker's incompetence, rather than to the employee's shortcomings. Potential handicaps may not only include other people, but also unfair procedures, inadequate tools, or any additional environmental conditions which may be perceived as detrimentally contributing to the odds of success (Hip-Fabek, 2005).

One frequently studied self-handicapping method is alcohol or drug consumption (e.g., Berglas & Jones, 1978; Isleib, Vuchinich, & Tucker, 1988; Rhodewalt, Sanbonmatsu, Tschanz, Feick, & Waller, 1995; Tucker, Vuchinich, & Sobell, 1981). By engaging in substance use prior

to a performance event (including task-related or interpersonal events), the individual may attribute failure in that event to the detrimental effects of the alcohol or drugs. Task-related failures may then be blamed on the effects of the alcohol (e.g., a hangover prevented the employee from arriving to the meeting on time), as can failed or negative interpersonal interactions (e.g., coworkers are hostile toward the individual because they do not approve of his drinking). By providing these plausible excuses for failure, the hostile employee is able to protect his own ego (Berglas & Jones, 1978) and maintain a reputation of ability amongst his audience (Kolditz & Arkin, 1982).

These behaviors often draw negative attention to the individual and can be viewed as unprofessional, especially in work settings (Brown & Sumner, 2006; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Rospenda, Richman, & Shannon, 2006). Common self-handicapping behaviors in the workplace include such hostile acts as spreading rumors, gossiping, or otherwise undermining others' reputations in order to make them seem incompetent by comparison to the hostile employee (Greenberg & Barling, 1999). These behaviors provide the dual purposes of establishing the hostile employee's superiority over others and providing justifications for probable failure by placing others in positions of inadequacy (Martin, 2009; Shepperd & Arkin, 1990).

Unsurprisingly, this hostile self-handicapping can lead to negative interpersonal interactions (Hirt, McCrea, & Boris, 2003) and, if the behaviors are deemed severe enough, organization-implemented sanctions (Brown & Sumner, 2006). Social media provides a potential outlet for these behaviors separate from the workspace. This versatile platform enables relational violence such as gossip, using offensive language, or verbally attacking a target. Hostile acts such as these can be carried out on social media either directly (where a target is overtly attacked or undermined) or indirectly (by posting content only visible to the audience rather than to the

8

target, or content that alludes to the target without identifying that person by name), depending on personal preference and situational constraints (Mantell, 1994). In addition to relational violence, social media also provides a venue for sharing self-handicapping content, such as pictures or status updates depicting excessive alcohol consumption, illicit drug use, or other behaviors that would be expected to interfere with task performance.

The one-to-many nature of social media engenders these ego-defensive and impression management behaviors by encouraging their display not only to the target, but also to a potentially large online audience. Depending on who the individual is in contact with, this audience may include coworkers, supervisors, or others (including friends and family) who may witness the outcome of a task and thus could form impressions of the hostile individual's ability. By uploading self-handicapping behaviors to a social media site in view of these people before a task (i.e., complaining about a coworker's ability or posting pictures of alcohol consumption the night prior to a presentation), the hostile individual can assert inferiority of others or provide other impediments to success (Benard, 2013; Berglas & Jones, 1978). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

> *Hypothesis 1a*: Hostility will be positively related to unprofessional social media behaviors.

Workplace Hostile Attributional Style

Hostile individuals are often characterized by a tendency to attribute the actions of others as motivated by malicious intentions (Tremblay & Belchevski, 2004). Having minimal access to others' thoughts and intentions, many people struggle with the interpretation of ambiguous acts carried out by others. In most situations, only another's behaviors are available to an individual, and it is from those behaviors that the individual must infer others' motives (Dodge & Crick,

9

1990). This leads to a tendency to categorize others in terms of traits according to schemas, then adjust those categories as more information becomes available (Gilbert, McNulty, Giuliano, & Benson, 1992). Through this categorizing process, attributional stereotypes are created (Gilbert et al., 1992). A large volume of research (e.g., Dodge & Crick, 1990; Försterling, Preikschas, & Agthe, 2007; Wu, Zhang, Chiu, Kwan, & He, 2013) has documented the pitfalls of the utilization of these schemas based on behavior. Typically, as described by attribution theory, individuals will either assign a characteristic to another person incorrectly or exaggerate a characteristic of that person due to an over-emphasis on interpersonal rather than situational cues (Gawronski, 2004).

One possible characteristic attributed to targets in ambiguous circumstances is hostility. The hostile attribution bias has traditionally been described as the tendency for hostile individuals to interpret other people's ambiguous actions as being deliberate and intended to cause harm to the individual (Milich & Dodge, 1984). We now view this trait more broadly, and suggest that it results from an over-emphasis on hostile cues in social situations combined with a failure to discern and interpret other cues that may be present in a given situation, rather than to the actual hostility of the target (Giancola, 1995). For example, a person possessing the hostile attributional style would likely interpret a coworker's latency in responding to an email as intentional (she is not responding on purpose), rather than incidental (perhaps she has been away from her computer for the day).

Hostile attributional styles can be present across a wide array of social contexts and can result in negative interpersonal outcomes (Orobio de Castro et al., 2002). In the workplace, they have been demonstrated to lead to negative outcomes such as increased anger, aggression, and perceived victimization (e.g., Aquino, Douglas, & Martinko, 2004; Fox, Spector, & Miles,

10

2001). Workplace hostile attributional style, as examined here, is characterized by its occurrence in work-related settings and its direction toward coworkers or supervisors (Bal & O'Brien, 2010). Individuals engaging in the workplace hostile attributional style tend to interpret coworkers' ambiguous actions, such as slow progress on assigned tasks, as indications of hostility or ostracism.

Situations that a hostile individual perceives either as frustrating or as threatening (physically or psychologically) to his or her well-being often generate feelings of anger and blame (Lazarus, Averill, Opton, & Arnold, 1970). It is therefore unsurprising that hostile attributional styles are associated with anger (Aquino et al., 2004). This is because individuals who engage in these types of cognitive styles are hyper-vigilant and overly sensitive to hostile cues and thus likely to perceive injustice or threats to their well-being. Hence, ego-defensive behaviors are likely in situations involving perceived hostility from coworkers, clients, or supervisors, especially if an individual engages in the workplace hostile attributional style (Walters, 2005). Hostile actions are often perceived by the individual as disrespectful or impolite, and therefore threatening to that individual's ego because they create negative emotions such as feelings of inferiority (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Felson, 1978). An internalization of these feelings may result in ego depletion, and therefore the individual is motivated to externalize them (Goerke, Möller, Schulz-Hardt, Napiersky, & Frey, 2004). Whereas an individual high in hostility may use self-handicapping as a means to proactively protect his reputation and ego, a person with a hostile attributional style may use self-handicapping to create plausible explanations for the perceived hostile actions of others. For instance, by convincing himself that a coworker was rude to him because that coworker is a disagreeable person and/or disapproves of his unrelated previous behaviors (e.g., going out and

11

drinking the night before) an employee is able to externalize negative emotions after perceiving hostility from that coworker. Feelings of anger or blame may be assigned to the target (the coworker does not like the individual because she is a disagreeable person and thus deserving of resentment) rather than to himself, enabling the employee to discount internal causes for perceived hostility. Because the individual is able to place the blame for others' negative actions on external sources rather than his own shortcomings, ego is maintained (Hip-Fabek, 2005). He convinces himself of others' shortcomings rather than accepting his own. Therefore, individuals who employ a workplace hostile attributional style often engage in a range of acts designed to draw attention to the deficiencies of externalized persons or environments (Martin, 2009).

As it does for the ego-defensive behaviors of those high in hostility, social media may provide an ideal outlet for individuals high in workplace hostile attributional style to protect or regain their self-esteem through establishing the inferiority of others. Although hostility or other personal slights may be perceived at work, unprofessional behaviors designed to restore ego (such as name-calling or gossiping with the intent to draw attention to others' shortcomings) are often met with repercussions involving social and organizational sanctions when carried out in the workplace (Brown & Sumner, 2006). Social media may therefore provide a "safer" environment for these behaviors that is separate (physically and/or temporally) from the workplace. Additionally, social media's flexibility in providing direct or indirect avenues of ego-defensiveness and its ability to offer a large audience to witness the individual save face make social media an attractive option for displays of these unprofessional behaviors. Hence, it is proposed:

> *Hypothesis 1b*: Workplace hostile attributional style will be positively related to
> unprofessional social media behaviors.

Negative Affectivity

Often comorbid with hostility and hostile attributional biases is negative affectivity (Berkowitz, 1990). Negative affectivity is a broad construct, but is generally defined by a pervasive negative emotionality and self-concept (Watson & Clark, 1984). Individuals high in negative affectivity tend to view themselves, others, and the world in a deleterious or pessimistic manner as opposed to a positive or optimistic one (Chang, Sanna, & Yang, 2003). They readily perceive both information and the actions of others to be threatening to their well-being or self-esteem, and are inclined to be introspective and methodical in their cognitions (Bohner & Weinerth, 2001; Chen & Spector, 1991). This often leads these individuals to be overly sensitive to minor frustrations and causes them to be prone to experiencing negative emotions such as fear, guilt, sadness, or anger (Penney & Spector, 2005).

These perceptions are due to the appraisal process following a perceived negative event. Most individuals' primary reaction to negatively perceived events includes feelings of anger (Berkowitz, 1990). However, these feelings may dissipate too quickly for the individual to act on them. One way in which these emotions will lead to behaviors is through the appraisal process. If the individual appraises the situation as hostile or threatening, he or she will produce unfavorable judgments of targets (Berkowitz, 1990) and experience more complex anger-related emotions such as sadness, guilt, envy, or contempt (Monteith, Berkowitz, Kruglanski, & Blair, 1990). This is precisely the appraisal process to which individuals high in negative affectivity default (Bohner & Weinerth, 2001). Consequently, those high in negative affectivity are more likely to report negative interpersonal encounters (Besser & Zeigler-Hill, 2010; Prkachin & Silverman, 2002) as well as feelings of victimization in the workplace (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000).

13

Because of their inclination to perceive information as ego-threatening (Bohner & Weinerth, 2001), those with higher levels of negative affectivity more readily and frequently perceive ego threat than others (Katahn & Pagano, 1965; Schmeichel & Demaree, 2010). To protect their egos from damage by negative emotions, many people will employ defense mechanisms to externalize these emotions (as self-handicapping, described above, demonstrates). This externalization results in feelings of anger or blame directed toward the target, rather than toward the individual (Bond, Ruaro, & Wingrove, 2006). In turn, this anger can lead to antagonism or other unprofessional ego-defensive behaviors (Lazarus et al., 1970).

These ego-defensive behaviors may be facilitated by social media in much the same way as behaviors arising from hostility and workplace hostile attribution styles. Through social media, individuals may seek to restore a perceived loss to their ego, to right wrongs, or to deter future attacks against them by pointing out the shortcomings of other people or their environment. In addition to aggressive ego-defensive behaviors, however, high negative affectivity individuals may use this outlet for a less hostile reason. Social media encourages contact not only with coworkers or supervisors (who may be the source of the ego threat) but also with friends and family members. Individuals high in negative affectivity, because of the constant perception of threats to their self-esteem, are more likely to exhibit social support-seeking behaviors in which they turn to friends or family for emotional support (Yagil, Ben-Zur, & Tamir, 2011; Ben-Zur, 2009; Zeidner, 1994). Therefore, those high in negative affectivity may post negative material through social media in order to draw attention to their distress and garner social support and empathy from sources other than the perpetrator. Through this process, they can regain lost self-esteem and restore ego (Riggio, Watring, & Throckmorton, 1993). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1c: Negative affectivity will be positively related to unprofessional social
media behaviors.

Interactional Justice

Research on justice within organizations has proliferated since the 1990s (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Initial inquiry began in the 1960s with what is now known as distributive justice, a construct that is rooted in equity theory and emphasizes the perceived fairness of outcomes (Adams, 1965). Favorable outcomes alone, however, are not enough to influence whether an individual feels a process is fair. Interpersonal treatment must also be perceived positively in order for an individual to assess a process or outcome as fair (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005). Procedural justice refers to the processes by which an outcome is arrived at (Cropanzano & Randall, 1993). This model expands on distributive justice by examining not only outcomes, but the perceptions of the fairness of the processes resulting in those outcomes. Consistency in rules, freedom from bias, ethicalness, accuracy, and ability of outcomes to be corrected have all been shown to influence perceptions of process fairness (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Although procedural justice offers an acceptable framework from which to examine the relationship of personality to negative posting behaviors, a more specific facet of justice, interactional justice, focuses solely on the interpersonal experiences of a process (Bies & Moag 1986). In order for interactional justice to be perceived, four criteria must be met. Reasoning behind decisions must be explained (justification), politeness must be expressed (respect), interactions must be genuine and truthful (honesty), and prejudices must be suppressed (propriety). In the event that interpersonal injustice is perceived, negative emotions are often

15

directed at the person deemed responsible, rather than the process, the outcomes, or the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Mediation

Interactional justice is expected to mediate the relationship between personality and negative posting behaviors. Social exchange and equity theory both state that in order for an outcome to be perceived as fair, the ratio of input must be seen as commensurate to the received output of an exchange (Blau, 1964; Harder, 1991). In the event that equity is not perceived, an injustice is deemed to have occurred, and emotional tension often arises in the form of anger (Williams, 1999). Those high in hostility not only tend to experience more anger than others (Buss & Perry, 1992), but also have a greater propensity to attribute the actions of others as hostile through either their default appraisal process (Tremblay & Belchevski, 2004) or through self-handicapping (Hip-Fabek, 2005). Thus, they are more likely to perceive an interactional injustice in which a wrong must be righted (Legant & Mettee, 1973). To the hostile individual, correcting a perceived wrong is a means of reasserting dominance (or at least lessening feelings of weakness or inferiority) and alleviating the harm-doer's guilt. If the score is not evened, then the perceived perpetrator remains guilty in the eyes of the victim, and ego is eroded (Berscheid, Boye, & Walster, 1968).

Based on social exchange theory, perceived inequity will result not only in feelings of anger, but also in a lack of trust on the part of the hostile individual (Robinson, 1996). When an individual's trust in his or her coworkers, supervisors, and company erodes, that person is likely to perceive a deterioration of his or her relationship with an organization (Ng, Feldman, & Lam, 2010). This combination of a hostile individual perceiving injustice and experiencing decreased investment in the organizational relationship is expected to lead to an increase in unprofessional

social media behaviors. Because the individual seeks to protect his ego and his reputation, but is less dedicated to the organization, he may post negative content with less regard for the professional repercussions. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

> *Hypothesis 2a*: Perceived interactional justice will mediate the relationship between hostility and unprofessional social media behaviors.

Interactional justice is expected to mediate the relationship between workplace hostile attributional style and deviant ego-defensive content in much the same way. Individuals high in hostile cognitive styles appraise others' ambiguous actions as being intended to harm (Tremblay & Belchevski, 2004). Therefore, they are prone to perceive interactional injustice, a hostile act (Allred, Bies, Lewicki, & Sheppard, 1999). These perceived hostile actions, via the norm of reciprocity (Blau, 1964), consequently lead to ego threat and feelings of mistrust (Robinson, 1996). Following these events, individuals high in workplace hostile attributional style are likely to react with forceful interpersonal behaviors (Allred, et al., 1999) in an effort to restore self-esteem, correct the injustice, and deter similar events in the future. Social media provides a distributive outlet for this behavior, and its use may be especially likely following a perceived deterioration in the quality of relationship between the individual and the organization. Because of this, it is hypothesized that:

> *Hypothesis 2b*: Perceived interactional justice will mediate the relationship between workplace hostile attributional style and unprofessional social media behaviors.

Negative affectivity may also be an antecedent to perceptions of interactional injustice (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). Individuals high in negative affectivity tend to view the world, themselves, and others in a pessimistic manner, and are accordingly inclined to expect

17

interpersonal interactions to be negative (Chang et al., 2003). This expectancy may result from a combination of two cognitive processes, called the behavioral inhibition system and negativity bias. The behavioral inhibition system is attuned to environmental cues of punishment, causing negative stimuli to become more salient to the individual than cues of reward, or positive stimuli (Gray, 1994; Zelenski & Larsen, 1999). This hyper-sensitivity to negative stimuli creates the expectancy that most events will be negative and leads the individual to affirm these expectations after the occurrence of those events (Zelenski & Larsen, 2002). This affirmation is due in part to the negativity bias, which causes an increased response to negative stimuli over positive stimuli (Ito & Cacioppo, 2005). Once a negative stimulus is perceived, the individual will focus on that stimulus rather than any other positive stimuli that might have been present in the situation. This effect scales with intensity of the stimulus such that the greater the negative stimulus, the stronger the individual's negative emotional reaction (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Ito & Cacioppo, 2005). In engaging in these cognitive processes, those high in negative affectivity are more likely to perceive interpersonal events as containing interactional injustices and to react more strongly to these events. Research has supported this expectation, with both state and trait-based negative affect having been associated with increased perceptions of interactional injustice (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007).

These perceptions lead to negative thoughts, which have been demonstrated to last significantly longer than positive thoughts created by positive events (Larsen, 2002). Negative thoughts engender rumination, which may be detrimental to the individual's overall emotional well-being (Larsen, 2009). Rumination can erode the ego, thus motivating the individual to eliminate the negative feelings and restore ego. Elimination of these feelings may be accomplished through posting unprofessional content on social media. The platform allows for

the externalization of anger through a negative evaluation of the perceived source of interactional injustice, which may be likely due to feelings of organizational betrayal (Schaubroeck, Walumbwa, Ganster, & Kepes, 2007). Negative external evaluations then reduce feelings of vulnerability (Bond et al., 2006). Alternatively, social media allows for positive social support-seeking behaviors, which offer a secondary means of increasing self-esteem. Therefore, the following is hypothesized:

> *Hypothesis 2c*: Perceived interactional justice will mediate the relationship between negative affectivity and unprofessional social media behaviors.

Supervisor Contact through Social Media

Social media sites such as Facebook, LinkedIn, and Twitter encourage users to share their information with multiple other individuals (Boyd, 2008). Most, however, allow varying degrees of control over the information shared. Many sites provide some form of security setting where users can limit access to their content to a specific audience. This prevents a select amount of the user's content from being visible to people with whom the user does not wish to share that content. Although these types of features may provide some benefit to users concerned with selective self-presentation and context collapse, they are often bimodal, where a specific individual can either access all of a user's content or none of it. Therefore, employees are presented with a dilemma when a) choosing whether to connect with a supervisor through social media and b) choosing what type of content they upload to their social media accounts. Employees may be encouraged to network with supervisors through social media, but this involves a degree of risk. If an employee connects with his or her supervisor and posts information that contributes to attributions of that employee as being unprofessional which that supervisor then views, he or she may endure a negative reputation or even organizational

sanctions (Society for Human Resource management, 2012; Zinko, 2013;). Thus, many employees limit or block their supervisor's access to their social media content (Pate, 2012).

There may be times, however, when an employee does not wish to hide negative content from his or her supervisor. In the event of perceived interactional injustice, the norms of social exchange theory are violated, trust is eroded, and perceived obligation to uphold organizational values decreases (Ng, Feldman, & Lam, 2010; Robinson, 1996). These events have several implications. One of the primary functions of ego-defensive behaviors is to ward off unpleasant feelings (Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Sideris, & Stubing, 1993). Expressing these feelings is one way that ego can be regained, and writing about negative events that threaten ego has been shown to have therapeutic effects (Bond et al., 2006). Social media may bolster these effects in multiple ways. First, as supervisors are often performance witnesses, social media allows the employee to self-handicap in view of a supervisor if that supervisor is in contact with that employee (therefore relieving the employee from fault in the event, increasing its "unjustness"). By posting unprofessional ego-defensive content in view of a supervisor, the employee ensures maximum exposure and opportunity for attributions created through self-handicapping. This may be an attempt to increase the likelihood for both social support for the employee and sanctions against the target. Second, if an employee experiences interactional injustice at work, he or she may want to expose this injustice to the maximum number of relevant parties, thus increasing the chance that the wrong is righted, decreasing the target's social standing and power relative to the employee's own, and deterring future injustices from the target. Finally, if an individual experiences a decrease in devotion to an organization and its values, he or she is less likely to care about maintaining a professional impression within the organization (Hewlin, 2009; Shore & Wayne, 1993). This may cause the individual to be less concerned about displaying

20

unprofessional behaviors on social media, and may in fact create the opposite effect, where he or she is more likely to exhibit unprofessional behaviors as a means of protecting ego and expressing dissatisfaction. Thus, it is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 3: Employees' level of online connection through social media sites with supervisors will moderate the relationship between interactional justice and unprofessional social media behaviors, such that those who are in contact with their supervisors through social media sites will be more likely to exhibit unprofessional social media behaviors than those who are not.

Exploratory Analyses

In addition to the effects of personality on unprofessional social media behaviors, exploratory analyses will be conducted to determine whether the personality traits of hostility, workplace hostile attribution style, and negative affectivity influence frequency with which an individual manages his or her social media content. Due to the increased frequency of perceived ego threats experienced by those high in these personality traits, it is expected that those individuals would be more likely to manage their social media on a frequent basis. It is anticipated that these individuals will engage in behaviors such as posting status updates, pictures, or messages to their websites on a regular basis, and would also be apt to engage in high levels of profile management, such as editing profile information and updating profile photographs.

This increased social media management, as well as increased unprofessional social media behaviors, may not only be related to perceptions of interactional injustice, but also to decreased emotion regulation, the process by which individuals can influence the types, timing, and expressions of experienced emotions (Gross, 1998). Research has indicated that those high in traits such as hostility and negative affectivity may also exhibit decreased emotion regulation,

21

and may engage in aggressive behavior as a means of regulating negative affect (Anestis, Anestis, Selby, & Joiner, 2009; Bushman, Baumeister, & Phillips, 2001). Thus, emotion regulation will be examined as both a mediator of the personality-unprofessional social media behavior relationship and a moderator of the interactional justice-unprofessional social media behavior relationship.

Finally, some research has indicated that differences may exist between males and females in trait levels of hostility and negative affectivity (e.g.; Ojha, 1995; Wright, Newman, Meyer, & May, 1993). In comparison to females, males may exhibit elevated levels of these traits. Therefore, hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity will be examined by gender. Additionally, the current study will explore whether there are gender differences in reported levels of unprofessional social media behaviors. Finally, gender will also be examined as a moderator of the relationship between personality traits and unprofessional social media behaviors.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Participants, Procedure, and Data

This study uses archival data collected from an online panel. The Syracuse Study Response Project, a web-based recruitment service, matches researchers with participants who have agreed to complete online surveys in exchange for monetary rewards (Stanton, Stam, Guzman, & Caldera, 2003). Compensation for incumbents consisted of $5 for each of the first two surveys completed and $20 for the third, resulting in a possible $30. Supervisors were compensated $10 for participation. The survey was originally administered in four waves at three different time points to participants and their supervisors; however, only self-report data is used in the current study. Wave 1 contained 398 participants who responded to personality inventories. These included measures of hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity. A total of 367 participants completed the Wave 2 survey. This survey consisted of measures of work stressors such as interactional justice. A total of 317 participants completed the survey in Wave 3. This survey contained items pertaining to employees' use of social media. Finally, 283 supervisors completed measures of employees' workplace behaviors (e.g., counterproductive work behaviors) in Wave 4. This wave was administered at the same time as Wave 3. For a list of scales administered, organized by time of administration and reporting source (self or supervisor), see Appendix A. During each wave of the study, respondents were removed due to non-purposeful responding or missing data. An additional 13 respondents were removed in Wave 3 due to non-use of social media sites.

The sample used in the current study has been taken from a larger study using these same participants. After removing participants due to non-purposeful responding and non-use of social

media, the current sample contained 246 participants. Of these participants, 50% identified as female (n = 123), and 77.2% as Caucasian (n = 190). Participants' ages ranged from 23 to 75 years, with a mean of 39.6. They were employed in a wide array of industries, (e.g., healthcare, legal, manufacturing), and worked an average of 41.6 hours per week.

<div align="center">Measures</div>

Hostility

Hostility is the cognitive component of aggression that represents feelings of ill-will, including resentment and suspicion of others (Buss & Perry, 1992). This construct was assessed during Wave 1 using the eight-item subscale of the Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (1992). The questionnaire uses a Likert response format ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), with higher scores indicating higher levels of hostility. A sample item includes "I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy." A complete list of scale items is available in Appendix C. The internal reliability estimate (Cronbach's alpha) for this scale is .91.

Workplace Hostile Attributional Style

Workplace hostile attributional style refers to the extent an individual attributes the cause of ambiguous actions by others as hostile or antagonistic. This construct was assessed during Wave 1 using the workplace hostile attributional style short form (WHAS-7) developed by Bal and O'Brien (2010). The WHAS-7 contains seven self-report items with response options ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (usually). Example items include "If coworkers work slowly on a task I assigned them, it is because they don't like me" and "When my things are missing, they have probably been stolen." A complete item list for this scale is available in Appendix C.

Higher scores indicate higher levels of hostile attribution style at work. Internal reliability for the scale reached a Cronbach's alpha of .89.

Negative Affectivity

Negative affectivity is a broad and stable trait disposition that predisposes an individual to negative emotions. This construct was assessed in Wave 1 using the validated positive and negative affect scale (PANAS) developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). The PANAS contains 10 negative affect items. These consist of words with response options asking to what degree respondents have felt the emotion described by the item (e.g., depressed or upset) in the past 6 months. For a complete list of scale items, see Appendix C. Options range from 1 (very slightly or not at all) to 5 (extremely). Higher scores on the 10-item NA subscale indicate higher levels of negative affectivity. The internal reliability estimate for this scale is .93.

Interactional Justice

Interactional justice is the extent to which an individual perceives that he or she is being treated fairly by others. It was assessed in Wave 2 using the interactional justice facet of Moorman's (1991) interactional justice scale. The scale's six items include perceptions of supervisors' kindness, consideration of employees' rights, and truthfulness (available in Appendix C). Response options ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Higher scores on the measure indicate higher perceptions of interactional justice. The internal consistency for this measure was .94.

Supervisor Contact through Social Media

Supervisor contact through social media is defined as whether or not an employee is directly connected with his or her supervisor through social media. The construct was assessed

using one item, which was taken from the larger scale of social media use in Wave 3. The larger scale, developed by Weidner, Wynne, & O'Brien (2012) contains 67 items, which are available in Appendix B. The item measuring supervisor contact through social media read: "Are you in contact with your supervisor/manager through a social media site?" The response option was dichotomous, with respondents selecting either "yes" or "no."

Unprofessional Social Media Behaviors

Unprofessional social media behaviors are defined as the uploading of content that intentionally or unintentionally promotes appraisals of the individual as being socially inappropriate, negative, or otherwise unbecoming in the workplace. This construct was assessed using a seven-item scale developed for this study. Items for the scale were pulled from the larger social media use scale by Weidner, Wynne, & O'Brien (2012), and were included due to their content being related to disparaging material regarding coworkers, supervisors, or the workplace, as well as behaviors most workplaces would find unacceptable. Items included assess posting behaviors such as negative comments about a supervisor, coworker, or workplace, (e.g., "have you ever posted something negative about a coworker on your SNS"), as well as potentially objectionable photographs (e.g., "Do you have any pictures posted in which you are performing illegal activities"). These items are available in Appendices B and C. Each item was presented with a dichotomous "yes" or "no" response option.

An exploratory factor analysis of this scale was conducted before employing it in this study. One factor, accounting for 66.96% of the variance, was retained using principal axis factoring with direct oblimin rotation, based on a scree plot and eigenvalues over one. All items correlated significantly at the .001 alpha level with one another, with inter-item correlations ranging from .44 to .78. Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale was determined to

be .90. The inter-item correlations of the scale are available in Table 1. The factor loadings for items included in the unprofessional social media behavior scale are available in Tables 2 and 3 (Factor 2). A confirmatory factor analysis of the scale indicated adequate, though somewhat low, levels of fit, with a comparative fit index of .959 and standardized root mean square residual of .03. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .145, χ^2 (9, N = 246) = 55.12, $p < .01$. To ensure the single factor assessed by this scale was separate from those assessed by the independent variable scales, additional exploratory factor analyses were conducted. Example results of these analyses are available in Tables 2 and 3, and provide evidence that this scale measures a unique factor.

Table 1. *Inter-item correlations of unprofessional social media behavior items*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Post something negative about a coworker	-					
2. Post something negative about your boss	.74	-				
3. Post something negative about your workplace	.61	.69	-			
4. Pictures of you using illegal drugs	.65	.65	.56	-		
5. Pictures of you performing illegal activities	.69	.78	.49	.68	-	
6. Pictures of you consuming alcoholic beverages	.52	.44	.48	.53	.50	-

Note: All correlations are significant at the $p < .01$ level.

Table 2. *Factor loadings for unprofessional social media behavior and workplace hostile attributional style items*

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
Have you ever posted something negative about a coworker on a SNS?	.27	.86
Have you ever posted something negative about your boss on a SNS?	.24	.88
Have you ever posted something negative about your workplace on a SNS?	.23	.78
Do you have any pictures of you using illegal drugs on a SNS?	.27	.83
Do you have any pictures posted in which you are performing illegal activities?	.32	.85
Do you have pictures posted of you consuming alcoholic beverages on a SNS?	.19	.67
When coworkers leave me out of social events, it is to hurt my feelings.	.73	.24
If coworkers do not appreciate me enough, it is because they are self-centered.	.75	.15
If coworkers work slowly on a task I assigned them, it is because they don't like me.	.83	.29
If people are laughing at work, I think they are laughing at me.	.80	.37
If coworkers ignore me, it is because they are being rude.	.81	.17
Coworkers deliberately make my job more difficult.	.83	.27
When my things are missing, they have probably been stolen.	.79	.26

Table 3. *Factor loadings for unprofessional social media behavior and negative affectivity items*

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
Have you ever posted something negative about a coworker on a SNS?	.01	.86
Have you ever posted something negative about your boss on a SNS?	-.01	.88
Have you ever posted something negative about your workplace on a SNS?	-.01	.78
Do you have any pictures of you using illegal drugs on a SNS?	-.05	.83
Do you have any pictures posted in which you are performing illegal activities?	.00	.85
Do you have pictures posted of you consuming alcoholic beverages on a SNS?	.07	.67
Distressed	.84	-.11
Upset	.86	-.13
Guilty	.68	.06
Scared	.88	-.03
Hostile	.68	.20
Irritable	.78	-.02
Ashamed	.66	.24
Nervous	.83	.01
Jittery	.84	.02
Afraid	.89	-.08

Social Media Management

Social media management is the frequency with which an individual uploads or edits content on his or her social media site. This construct was assessed using a five-item scale developed for this study. Items for the scale were pulled from the larger social media use scale by Weidner, Wynne, & O'Brien (2012), and were included due to their content being related to the frequency of social media uploading or editing. Items included assess the frequency of

behaviors such as posting status updates (e.g., "How often do you post messages/status updates on your social media sites?") or editing profile information (e.g., "How often do you change your profile photo?"). These items are available in Appendices B and C. Response options for each item ranged from 1 (never) to 7 (very often). Higher scores on the measure indicate higher levels of social media management.

An exploratory factor analysis of this scale was conducted before employing it in this study. One factor, accounting for 68.66% of the variance, was retained using principal axis factoring with direct oblimin rotation, based on a scree plot and eigenvalues over one. All items correlated significantly at the .01 alpha level with one another, with inter-item correlations ranging from .47 to .76. Internal consistency of the scale was determined to be .88. The factor loadings for items included in the social media management scale are available in Table 4. The inter-item correlations of the scale are available in Table 5. A confirmatory factor analysis of the scale was also conducted to provide additional support for the use of this scale. This analysis indicated adequate fit, with a comparative fit index of .992 and standardized root mean square residual of .02. The RMSEA for the scale was .069, χ^2 (5, N = 246) = 11.7, $p < .05$.

Table 4. *Factor loadings for social media management items*

Item	Factor 1
How often do you post messages/status updates on your social media sites?	.81
How often do you post pictures/videos on your social media sites?	.88
How often do you edit your profile information?	.89
How often do you change your profile photos?	.87
How often do you post status updates that relate to what is going on at your work?	.69

Table 5. *Inter-item correlations of social media management items*

	1	2	3	4	5

1. Post messages/status updates on social media sites	-				
2. Post pictures/videos on social media sites	.65	-			
3. Edit your profile information	.60	.74	-		
4. Change your profile photos	.63	.71	.76	-	
5. Post status updates that relate to work	.47	.47	.52	.48	-

Note: All correlations are significant at the $p < .01$ level.

Emotion Regulation

Emotion regulation is the process by which an individual is able to influence the types, timing, and expressions of experienced emotions (Gross, 1998). This construct was assessed in Wave 1 using the Gratz & Roemer (2004) Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale. This scale consists of 12 items targeting emotional regulation. Example items include "When I am upset, I have difficulty concentrating" and "When I am upset, I have difficulty focusing on other things." Response options for each item ranged from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always), with higher scores on the scale indicating lower levels of emotion regulation.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Direct Effects

Means, standard deviations, and Pearson product-moment correlations among all study

variables are reported in Table 6. Linear regression analysis was performed in order to determine

the direct effect of each of the three personality traits on unprofessional social media behaviors.

Separate models were run for the traits of hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and

negative affectivity, and in all models and results reported below, regression coefficients are in

unstandardized form. These results are displayed below in Tables 7, 8, and 9. As shown, trait

hostility was significantly positively related to unprofessional social media behaviors (.52; $t =$

3.58, $p < .001$), in support of Hypothesis 1a. Workplace hostile attributional style was also

significantly positively related to unprofessional social media behaviors (.87; $t = 3.41$, $p < .001$),

as was negative affectivity (1.04; $t = 4.30$, $p < .001$), consistent with Hypotheses 1b and 1c.

Table 6. *Means, standard deviations, and Pearson product-moment correlations among study variables*

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	.50	.50	-							
2. Hostility	3.32	1.36	-.06	-						
3. Workplace Hostile Attribution Bias	2.03	.77	-.14*	.57*	-					
4. Negative Affectivity	1.88	.77	.07	.49*	.50*	-				
5. Interactional Justice	5.23	1.23	.02	-.26*	-.34*	-.31*	-			
6. Supervisor Contact	.23	.98	.08	-.09	-.13	.03	-.05	-		
7. Emotion Regulation	4.16	1.03	-.08	-.62*	-.37*	-.53*	.22*	-.02	-	
8. Social Media Management	19.86	7.12	-.10	.22*	.24*	.21*	-.03	-.45*	-.18*	-
9. Unprofessional Social Media Behavior	-4.21	3.44	-.08	.27*	.32*	.28*	-.21*	-.45*	-.19	.41*

Note: Listwise n = 246. * p ≤ .01.

Mediation and Moderation

In analysis of mediation and moderation, the PROCESS algorithm for SPSS (Hayes, 2013) was employed. This computational tool generates direct and indirect effects in mediation and mediated moderation models, conditional effects in moderation models, and conditional indirect effects in moderated mediation models with a single or multiple mediators. In testing the hypothesized relationships, three separate models were run, each using a separate personality variable. In the first model, hostility was entered as a predictor (shown in Figure 1). Workplace hostile attributional style was entered as a predictor in the second model (Figure 2) and negative affectivity was entered as a predictor in the third model (Figure 3). In each model, interactional justice, which was expected to mediate the relationship between the personality independent variables and unprofessional social media behaviors, was entered as a mediator. This mediation was expected to be moderated by supervisor contact through social media, which was entered as a moderator in the mediator to dependent variable pathway.
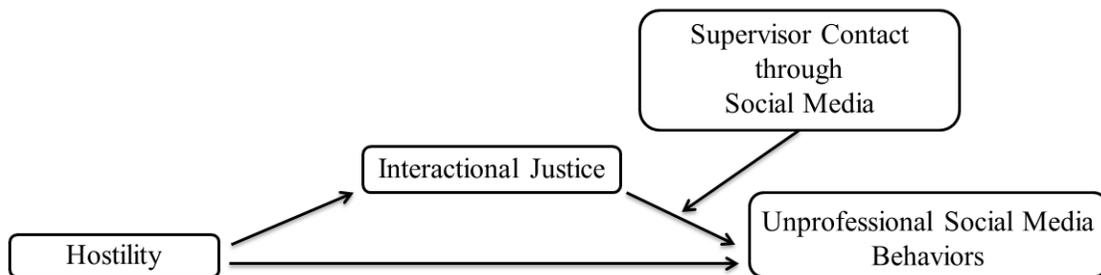
Figure 1. *Proposed model for the relationship between hostility and unprofessional social media behaviors.*
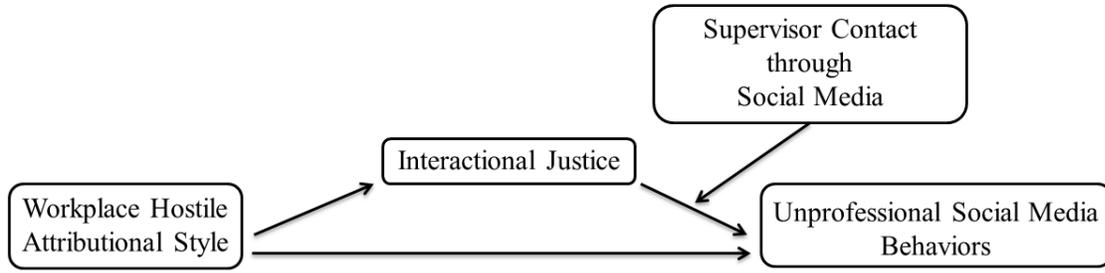
Figure 2. *Proposed model for the relationship between workplace hostile attribution style and unprofessional social media behaviors.*
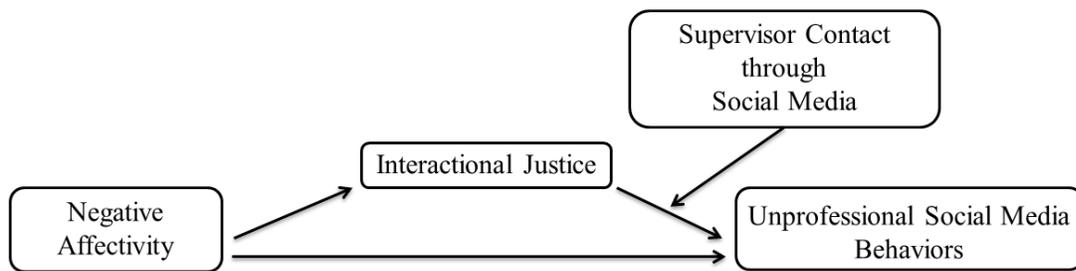
Figure 3. *Proposed model for the relationship between negative affectivity and unprofessional social media behaviors.*

Hostility

Mediating effects of interactional justice on the relationship between hostility and unprofessional media behaviors can be seen in Table 7. As shown in Table 7 and path *c* in Figure 4, hostility was significantly positively related to negative posting behaviors (.66; $t = 4.17$, $p < .001$). Also shown in Table 7 (Model 2, path *a* in Figure 4), and consistent with predictions, hostility was significantly negatively related to perceptions of interactional justice (-.25; $t = -4.37$, $p < .001$). Finally, interactional justice was negatively related to unprofessional posting behaviors on social media (see Table 7, Model 3-6, path *b* in Figure 4). The total effect of hostility on unprofessional social media behaviors (see Table 7, Model 3, path *c'* in Figure 4) was statistically significant. Most pertinent to the mediation hypothesis was the estimate of the

35

indirect effect of hostility on unprofessional social media behaviors, quantified as the product of

the OLS regression coefficient estimating interactional justice from hostility (path *a* in Figure 4)

and the logistic regression coefficient estimating unprofessional social media behavior from

interactional justice controlling for hostility (path *b* in Figure 4). A bias-corrected bootstrap-

confidence interval (CI) for the product of these paths that does not include zero provides

evidence for a significant indirect effect of hostility on unprofessional social media behaviors

through interactional justice (Hayes, 2009; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Using the PROCESS

algorithm with 5,000 bootstrap samples revealed a significant positive indirect effect of hostility

on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice (.58; $t = 3.48$, $p < .001$), in

support of Hypothesis 2.
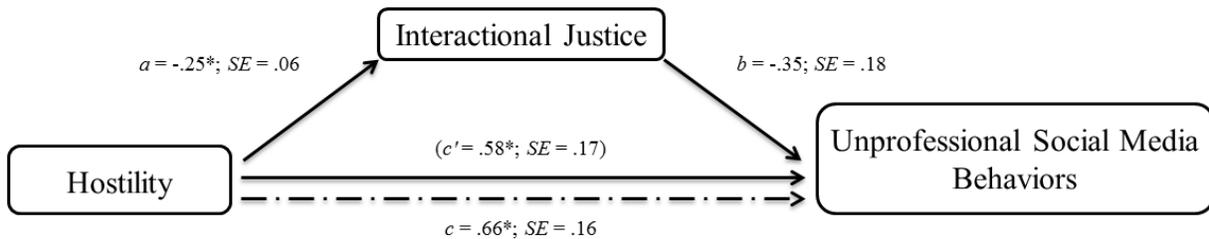
Figure 4. *Path coefficients for a simple mediation analysis of the direct and indirect effects of hostility on unprofessional social media behaviors.*
Note: Dotted line denotes the effect of hostility on unprofessional social media behaviors when interactional justice is not included as a mediator. *b*, *c*, and *c'* are unstandardized logistic regression coefficients, *a* is an unstandardized OLS regression coefficient. * indicates $p \leq .001$.

Table 7. *Ordinary least squares and logistic regression model coefficients for trait hostility*

Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Hostility	.66* (.16)	-.25*(.06)	.58* (.17)	.46* (.15)		.52* (.14)
Interactional Justice			-.35 (.18)	-.45* (.16)	-.81* (.16)	-.62* (.17)
Supervisor Contact				-1.54* (.20)	-1.64* (.20)	-4.84* (.86)
Interactional Justice × Supervisor Contact					.76* (.20)	.63* (.16)
F	17.42	19.30	10.66	28.50	31.89	26.63
R^2	.072	.068	.088	.279	.300	.326

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. Model 1 includes hostility (IV) and unprofessional social media behaviors (DV). Model 2 includes hostility (IV) and interactional justice (DV). Model 3 includes hostility, interactional justice (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). Model 4 includes hostility, interactional justice, and supervisor contact (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). Model 5 includes interactional justice, supervisor contact, and the interaction of interactional justice and supervisor contact (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). Model 6 includes hostility, interactional justice, supervisor contact, and the interaction of interactional justice and supervisor contact (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). In models with interactions, the lower order variables were mean centered prior to estimation to render all coefficients interpretable within the range of the data. * $p \leq .01$.

To test for moderation of the effect of interactional justice on unprofessional social media behaviors, an estimated OLS regression model predicting interactional justice from hostility, contact with supervisor, and their product was used. Predictors were centered prior to analysis, and results revealed that the effect of interactional justice on unprofessional social media behaviors was dependent on contact with supervisor through social media (Model 6 in Table 7). Simple mediation analysis provided evidence of a positive indirect effect of hostility on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice. When incorporating the moderation analysis showing that the effect of interactional justice on unprofessional social media behaviors is dependent on level of contact with supervisor through social media, the mediation is moderated. The indirect effect of hostility on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice is dependent on level of contact with supervisors through social media. In this situation, Preacher et al. (2007) recommend the estimation of conditional indirect effects, and testing, using a bootstrap CI, whether these indirect effects differ from zero at specific values of the moderator. This was done using the PROCESS algorithm (Hayes, 2013), which is designed to handle dichotomous outcomes, and using 5,000 bootstrap estimates for the construction of 95% bias-corrected CIs for the conditional indirect effects.

The conditional indirect effect of hostility on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice is the product of the conditional effect of hostility on interactional justice (path *a* in Figure 4) and interactional justice on unprofessional social media behaviors as a function of level of contact with supervisor through social media (*b* in Figure 4). Confidence intervals were generated by bootstrapping the sampling distribution of these functions of parameter estimates for specific values of supervisor contact using parameter estimates from each bootstrap sample. As the moderator is dichotomous, two values (contact or no contact) for

the moderator were used. The point estimates and 95% CIs for the conditional indirect effect can be found in Table 10. As shown, the indirect effect of hostility on unprofessional social media behavior was positive and significant among those with no supervisor contact (.12; 95% CI = 0.034 to 0.296). For those with supervisor contact, the conditional indirect effect was no different from zero (-.001; 95% percentile CI = -0.026 to 0.245), providing partial support for Hypothesis 3. Figure 7 depicts in more detail the nature of this moderation, showing that interactional justice had a significant negative effect on unprofessional posting behaviors among those who reported no supervisor contact, and a non-significant effect among those who reported being in contact with their supervisor.

Workplace Hostile Attributional Style

Mediating effects of interactional justice on the relationship between workplace hostile attributional style and unprofessional media behaviors can be seen in Table 8. Table 8 and path c in Figure 5, show that workplace hostile attributional style was significantly positively related to negative posting behaviors (1.35; $t = 4.96$, $p < .001$). Consistent with predictions and shown in Table 8 (Model 2, path a in Figure 5), workplace hostile attributional style was significantly negatively related to perceptions of interactional justice (-.54; $t = -5.86$, $p < .001$), and interactional justice was negatively related to unprofessional posting behaviors on social media (Table 8, Model 3-6, path b in Figure 5). The total effect of workplace hostile attributional style on unprofessional social media behaviors (see Table 8, Model 3, path c' in Figure 5) was statistically significant. Using a bias-corrected bootstrap-confidence interval revealed a significant positive indirect effect of workplace hostile attributional style on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice (1.20; $t = 4.16$, $p < .001$).

As testing for moderation of the mediator holds other predictors constant, results for the moderating effect of supervisor contact on the effect of interactional justice on unprofessional social media behaviors yielded similar results for workplace hostile attributional style as it did for hostility. The effect of interactional justice on unprofessional social media behaviors was dependent on contact with supervisor through social media (Model 6 in Table 8). Point estimates and CIs for the conditional indirect effect of interactional justice on the relationship between workplace hostile attributional style and unprofessional social media behavior generated through the PROCESS algorithm (Hayes, 2013), can be found in Table 10. As with hostility, the indirect effect of workplace hostile attributional style on unprofessional social media behavior was positive and significant among those with no contact (.61; 95% CI = 0.133 to 1.570). For those in contact with their supervisor, the conditional indirect effect once again was no different from zero (-.001; 95% percentile CI = -0.145 to 0.146).
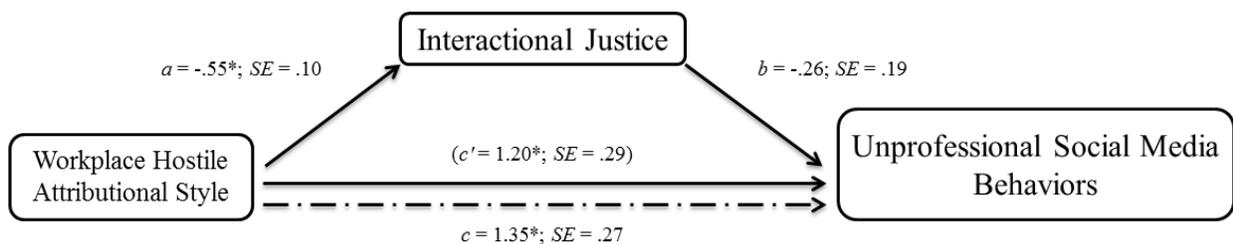
Figure 5. *Path coefficients for a simple mediation analysis of the direct and indirect effects of workplace hostile attributional style on unprofessional social media behaviors.*
Note: Dotted line denotes the effect of workplace hostile attributional style on unprofessional social media behaviors when interactional justice is not included as a mediator. *b*, *c*, and *c'* are unstandardized logistic regression coefficients, *a* is an unstandardized OLS regression coefficient. * indicates $p \leq .001$.

Table 8. *Ordinary least squares and logistic regression model coefficients for workplace hostile attributional style*

Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Workplace Hostile Attributional Style	1.35** (.27)	-.55** (.10)	1.20** (.29)	.90** (.26)		.87** (.26)
Interactional Justice			-.26 (.19)	-.38* (.17)	-.81** (.16)	-.56** (.17)
Supervisor Contact				-1.49** (.20)	-1.64** (.20)	-4.43** (.87)
Interactional Justice × Supervisor Contact					.76** (.20)	.56** (.16)
F	24.63	31.97	13.33	29.39	31.89	26.21
R^2	.099	.125	.107	.285	.300	.323

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. Model 1 includes workplace hostile attributional style (WHAS) [IV] and unprofessional social media behaviors (DV). Model 2 includes WHAS (IV) and interactional justice (DV). Model 3 includes WHAS, interactional justice (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). Model 4 includes WHAS, interactional justice, and supervisor contact (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). Model 5 includes interactional justice, supervisor contact, and the interaction of interactional justice and supervisor contact (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). Model 6 includes WHAS, interactional justice, supervisor contact, and the interaction of interactional justice and supervisor contact (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). In models with interactions, the lower order variables were mean centered prior to estimation to render all coefficients interpretable within the range of the data. * $p \le .05$ ** $p \le .01$.

Negative Affectivity

Mediating effects of interactional justice on the relationship between negative affectivity and unprofessional social media behaviors are available in Table 9. Both Table 9 and path *c* in Figure 6 show that negative affectivity was significantly positively related to negative posting behaviors (1.14; $t = 4.25$, $p < .001$). Also shown in Table 9 (Model 2, path *a* in Figure 6), workplace hostile attributional style was significantly negatively related to interactional justice (-.49; $t = -5.38$, $p < .001$), and interactional justice was negatively related to unprofessional posting behaviors on social media (Table 9, Model 3-6, path *b* in Figure 6). The total effect of workplace hostile attributional style on unprofessional social media behaviors (see Table 9, Model 3, path *c'* in Figure 6) was statistically significant. A bias-corrected bootstrap-confidence interval revealed a significant positive indirect effect of negative affectivity on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice (.98; $t = 3.48$, p < .001).

In testing moderation of the mediator, procedures similar to those used in the examination of hostility and workplace hostile attributional style were followed, and similar results obtained. The effect of interactional justice on unprofessional social media behaviors was dependent on contact with supervisor through social media (Model 6 in Table 9). Point estimates and CIs for the conditional indirect effect of interactional justice on the relationship between negative affectivity and unprofessional social media behavior are available in Table 10. As with previously examined personality traits, the indirect effect of negative affectivity on unprofessional social media behavior was positive and significant among those with no supervisor contact (.56; 95% CI = 0.124 to 1.446) and no different from zero for those in contact with their supervisor (-.02; 95% percentile CI = -0.182 to 0.082).
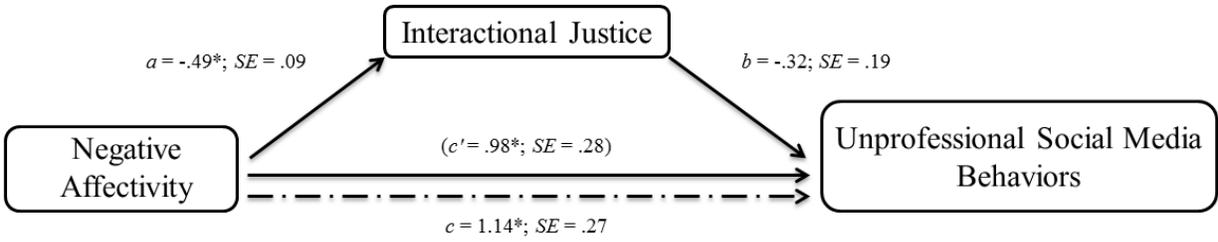
Figure 6. *Path coefficients for a simple mediation analysis of the direct and indirect effects of negative affectivity on unprofessional social media behaviors.*
Note: Dotted line denotes the effect of negative affectivity on unprofessional social media behaviors when interactional justice is not included as a mediator. *b*, *c* and *c'* are unstandardized logistic regression coefficients, *a* is an unstandardized OLS regression coefficient. * indicates $p \leq .001$.
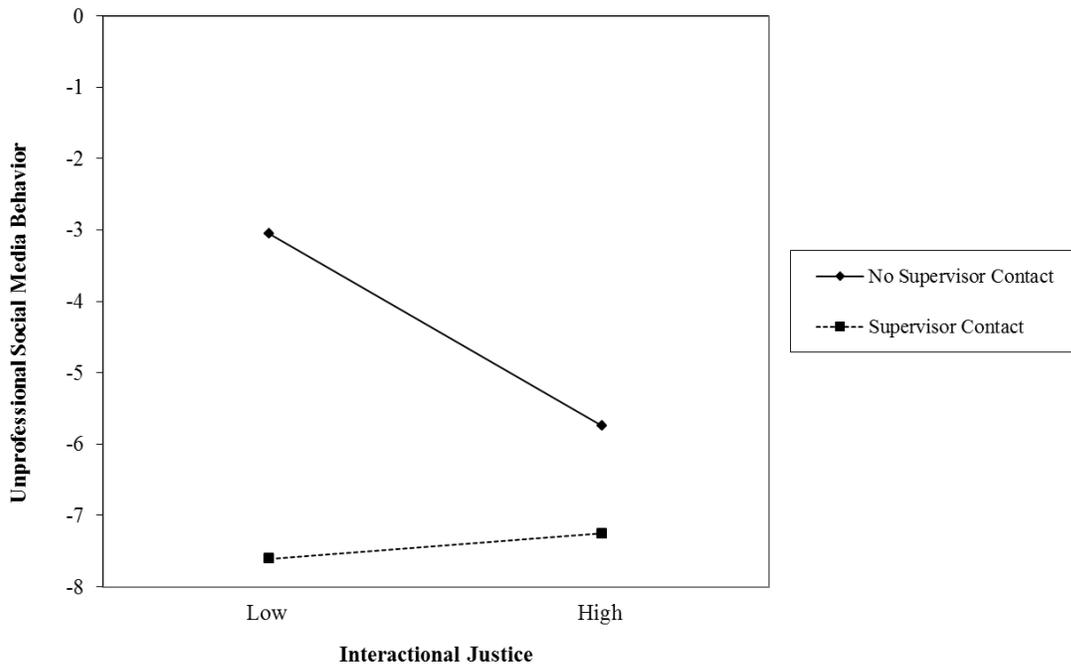
Figure 7. *Moderation of the effect of interactional justice by level of contact with supervisor.*

Table 9. *Ordinary least squares and logistic regression model coefficients for negative affectivity*

Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Negative Affectivity	1.14** (.27)	-.49** (.09)	.98** (.28)	1.01** (.25)		1.04** (.24)
Interactional Justice			-.32 (.19)	-.38* (.16)	-.81** (.16)	-.55** (.17)
Supervisor Contact				-1.61** (.20)	-1.64** (.20)	-4.73** (.85)
Interactional Justice × Supervisor Contact					.76** (.20)	.59** (.16)
F	18.06	28.93	10.62	31.56	31.89	28.62
R^2	.075	.099	.087	.300	.300	.342

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. Model 1 includes negative affectivity (IV) and unprofessional social media behaviors (DV). Model 2 includes negative affectivity (IV) and interactional justice (DV). Model 3 includes negative affectivity, interactional justice (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). Model 4 includes negative affectivity, interactional justice, and supervisor contact (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). Model 5 includes interactional justice, supervisor contact, and the interaction of interactional justice and supervisor contact (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). Model 6 includes negative affectivity, interactional justice, supervisor contact, and the interaction of interactional justice and supervisor contact (IVs) and unprofessional social media behavior (DV). In models with interactions, the lower order variables were mean centered prior to estimation to render all coefficients interpretable within the range of the data. * $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 10. *Conditional indirect effects of personality traits on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice at levels of supervisor contact*

	Point Estimate	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap Confidence Interval
Hostility		
No Contact	.12	0.034 to 0.296
Contact	-.001	-0.026 to 0.245
Workplace Hostile Attributional Style		
No Contact	.61	0.133 to 1.570
Contact	-.001	-0.145 to 0.146
Negative Affectivity		
No Contact	.56	0.124 to 1.446
Contact	-.02	-0.182 to 0.082

Note: 5,000 bootstrap samples.

Exploratory Analyses

Exploratory analyses were conducted to determine what, if any, effect the personality traits of hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity had on the frequency with which an individual managed content on his or her social media profiles. Linear regression was used to determine the direct effects of personality on social media management. Hostility had a significant positive relationship with social media management (.98; $t = 3.04$, $p < .01$), as did workplace hostile attributional style (1.73; $t = 3.01$, $p < .01$) and negative affectivity (1.98; $t = 3.63$, $p < .001$). However, using bootstrapped confidence intervals to determine the mediating effects of interactional justice on social media management yielded no significant results. The indirect effect of hostility on social media management through interactional justice was no different from zero (-.04; 95% percentile CI = -0.269 to 0.169). The same was true for the indirect effect of workplace hostile attribution style on social media management through interactional justice (-.18; 95% percentile CI = -0.756 to 0.245) and for negative affectivity on social media management through interactional justice (-.10; 95%

percentile CI = -0.603 to 0.318). Therefore, while the examined personality traits did correlate significantly with social media management, this study found no results indicating mediation of this path via interactional justice.

Emotion regulation was examined as a mediator of both the personality trait to unprofessional social media behavior path and the personality trait to social media management path, as well as a moderator of the conditional indirect effect of personality traits on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice. As interactional justice was not found to mediate the relationship between personality traits and social media management, emotional regulation was not examined as a moderator of the indirect effect of personality traits on social media management through interactional justice.

Using bias-corrected confidence-interval bootstrapping, neither hostility (.20; 95% percentile CI = -0.331 to 0.728), workplace hostile attributional style (.32; 95% percentile CI = -0.060 to 0.841), nor negative affectivity (.42; 95% percentile CI = -0.231 to 1.084) were determined to have significant indirect effects on social media management behaviors through emotional regulation. Likewise, no significant mediating effects were found when examining emotion regulation as a mediator in the hostility (-.16; 95% percentile CI = -0.451 to 0.132), workplace hostile attributional style (-.03; 95% percentile CI = -0.243 to 0.169), or negative affectivity(-.11; 95% percentile CI = -0.329 to 0.175) to unprofessional social media behavior paths.

OLS regression did reveal that the effect of interactional justice on unprofessional social media behaviors was dependent on emotion regulation. As shown in Table 11, the indirect effect of hostility on unprofessional social media behavior through interactional justice was positive and significant among those with median (.11, 95% CI: 0.029 to 0.245) and high (.15, 95% CI:

0.035 to 0.362) levels of emotion regulation. Likewise, the indirect effect of workplace hostile attributional style on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice was positive and significant among those with median (.18, 95% CI: 0.007 to 0.373) and high (.30, 95% CI: 0.100 to 0.632) levels of emotion regulation, and the indirect effect of negative affectivity on unprofessional social media behavior was also positive and significant among those with median (.20, 95% CI: 0.054 to 0.434) and high (.32, 95% CI: 0.103 to 0.692) levels of emotion regulation. Figure 8 depicts in more detail the nature of this moderation.
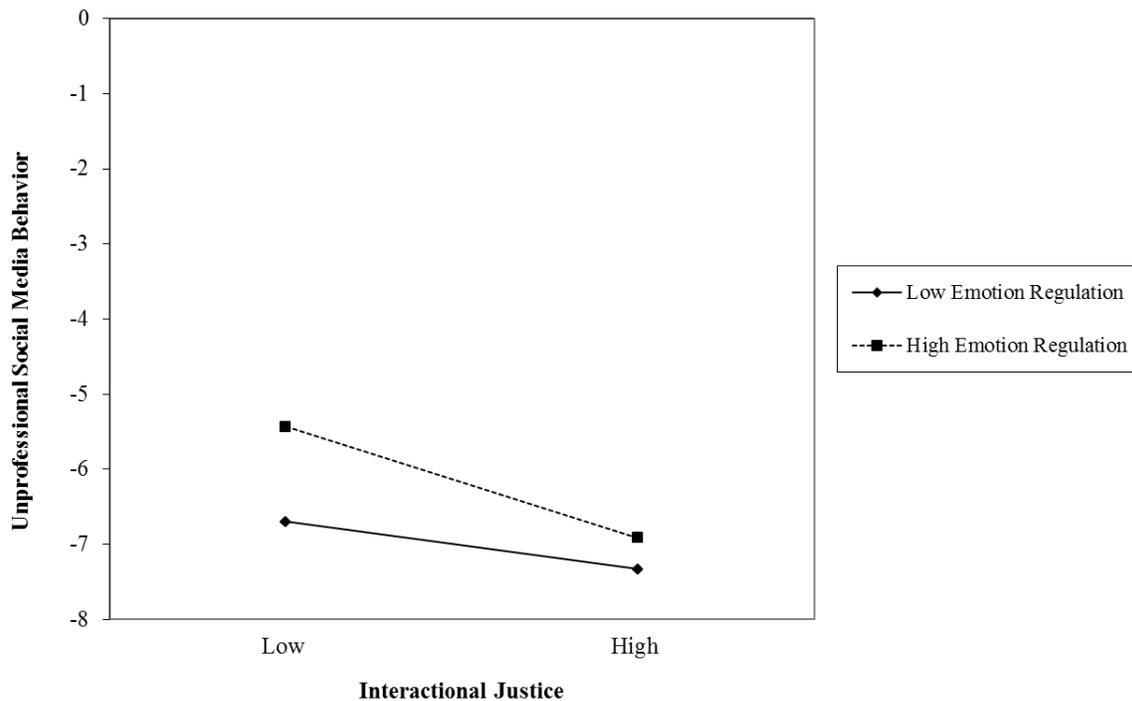
Figure 8. *Moderation of the effect of interactional justice by level of emotion regulation.*

An independent sample T-test revealed no significant differences between males (M = 3.43, SD = 1.32) and females (M = 3.26, SD = 1.41) for trait hostility, $t(223)$ = .92, p = .228, nor were there significant differences between males (M = 2.15, SD = 0.82) and females (M = 1.93, SD = 0.76) for workplace hostile attribution bias, $t(223)$ = 2.06, p = .399. Differences between

males ($M = 1.82$, $SD = 0.80$) and females ($M = 1.93$, $SD = 0.82$) regarding negative affectivity were also not significant, $t(223) = -1.10$, $p = .814$. Finally, there was no difference between males ($M = -3.95$, $SD = 3.56$) and females ($M = -4.46$, $SD = 3.31$) regarding unprofessional social media behaviors, $t(223) = 1.13$, $p = .334$. For no trait did gender moderate the path to unprofessional social behaviors.

Table 11. *Conditional indirect effects of personality traits on unprofessional social media behaviors through interactional justice at levels of emotion regulation*

	Point Estimate	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap Confidence Interval
Hostility		
Low Regulation (3.13)	.07	-0.009 to 0.188
Moderate Regulation (4.15)	.11	0.029 to 0.245
High Regulation (5.16)	.15	0.035 to 0.362
Workplace Hostile Attributional Style		
Low Regulation (3.13)	.06	-0.161 to 0.288
Moderate Regulation (4.15)	.18	0.007 to 0.373
High Regulation (5.16)	.30	0.100 to 0.632
Negative Affectivity		
Low Regulation (3.13)	.07	-0.120 to 0.293
Moderate Regulation (4.15)	.20	0.054 to 0.434
High Regulation (5.16)	.32	0.103 to 0.692

Note: 5,000 bootstrap samples.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the effects of personality traits on unprofessional behaviors displayed on social media sites. Prior research has convincingly demonstrated that elevated trait levels of hostility (Orobio de Castro, et al., 2002), hostile attributional style (Aquino, et al., 2004), and negative affectivity (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000) are positively related to unprofessional behaviors such as relational violence in the workplace. However, little research has been conducted with the intent to examine how these traits influence employee behaviors in an online environment. The current study sought to fill this gap in the research, acknowledging that social media has become an important and growing part of not only employees', but organizations' communication and self-presentation toolbox (Society for Human Resource Management, 2012). The styles in which employees communicate and self-present on social media sites such as Twitter and Facebook have ramifications not only for the employee (both socially and professionally), but also for the employer (Society for Human Resource Management, 2012). Thus, an understanding of both employee communication style and the factors that influence them must be understood for organizations to make informed decisions regarding social media use policies.

Past research has indicated that hostility is linked to relational violence in the workplace (Martin, 2009; Orobio de Castro, et al., 2002). This relationship is explained in part by hostile individuals' engagement in self-handicapping behaviors (Harris et al., 1986) and their propensity to experience decreased perceptions of interactional justice (Legant & Mettee, 1973). Results of the current study lend support to these findings. Hostility was significantly positively related to unprofessional social media behaviors. This supported Hypothesis 1a, which proposed that those

49

with elevated levels of trait hostility would report having engaged in more unprofessional social media behaviors than those lower in trait hostility. This indicated that those high in hostility may seek to use social media's distributive powers to self-handicap or engage in other emotion-focused coping. By complaining about their supervisors, coworkers, or work environments, these individuals not only assert the inferiority of others, but position themselves in a seemingly hostile environment wherein the online audience (i.e., family, friends, and work contacts) would not expect them to succeed.

This same positive relationship was found for those high in workplace hostile attributional style, supporting Hypotheses 1b. Those engaging in hostile attributional styles also express relationally violent behaviors, often as a means of ego-restoration (Hip-Fabek, 2005; Martin, 2009). By participating in self-handicapping behaviors, employees engaging in workplace hostile attributional styles create plausible explanations for experienced hostility (Hip-Fabek, 2005). Perhaps by posting negative comments or images, perceived hostile actions can be attributed to the transgressor's disapproval of the employee's actions rather than to his shortcomings. In creating these plausible excuses for unfavorable treatment, the individual's ego is protected.

Negative affectivity was shown to have a positive effect on employee's unprofessional behaviors on social media sites, as well. This finding is consistent with Hypothesis 1c and prior research indicating that those high in negative affectivity readily seek retribution for perceived wrongs and employ reactive coping styles (Yagil, et al., 2011), behaviors that social media enables. For each of these three traits, social media creates a distributive outlet for unprofessional behaviors. Opportunities for self-handicapping on social media are numerous, as the audience is often broad and likely to contain performance witnesses. Social media also allows for increased

social support opportunities, as outcomes of perceived injustice can be quickly and easily made visible to friends, coworkers, and family members.

Use of social media to restore depleted ego after unjust experiences may vary according to personality trait. Research on trait hostility, workplace hostile attributional styles, and negative affectivity has indicated that those high in these traits are more likely to experience perceived personal slights, and thus decreased interactional justice (Allred, et al., 1999). Those high in hostility and workplace hostile attributional style may employ social media as a tool for asserting others' shortcomings through self-handicapping, while those high in negative affectivity may opt to use it for self-handicapping and social support-seeking behaviors. Results of this study affirm these expectations. Interactional justice was found to mediate the relationship of hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity to unprofessional social media behaviors, providing support for Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c, respectively. This bolsters previous findings by indicating that that those high in these three traits not only readily perceive interactional injustice, but also readily take to social media for ego-restorative actions.

However, it is important to note that this mediation is dependent on the employee's level of contact with his or her supervisor through social media. In examination of the sample, results indicated significant mediation of the hostility-unprofessional social media relationship only when that individual had low (i.e., no) contact with his or her supervisor through social media. This provides partial support for Hypothesis 3. While level of contact with supervisor did moderate the relationship between perceived interactional justice and unprofessional social media behaviors, this moderation ran counter to the expected direction. It was hypothesized that those in contact with a supervisor through social media would display more negative content in the face of interactional injustice, due to a) the opportunity for sanctions against the target, b) an

effort to garner social support or special considerations from the supervisor, or c) the opportunity for self-handicapping behaviors, as a supervisor is almost certainly a performance witness in an organizational setting. Evidently, employees are less apt to post unprofessional content in view of a supervisor, regardless of personality trait. This may be due to several factors. Self-handicapping literature has continually identified the negative social consequences of engaging in self-handicapping behaviors (Crant, 1996; Hip-Fabek, 2005; Szmajke, 1998). Thus, it may be the case that employees are aware of the negative reputation engendered by these behaviors and seek to minimize them in view of a supervisor, prioritizing reputation over ego integrity. Not only might employees fear the social consequences of unprofessional behavioral displays, they may feel that the potential professional repercussions (such as missing an opportunity for promotion or possible termination) may outweigh the benefits of restoring their ego. Alternatively, being connected with a supervisor through social media may indicate a highly social and/or emotional relationship with that person. Research has shown that those who are emotionally close with their supervisors or coworkers are more likely to trust them, and thus more likely to be committed to the organization as a whole and less inclined to speak ill of it or its members (e.g., Altuntas, 2010; Tan & Lim, 2009).

While the hypothesized relationships were largely supported, exploratory analyses yielded interesting results. With the expectation that individuals high in hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity more readily perceive interactional injustice, it was anticipated that these employees would update their statuses and profiles more frequently. If injustices are perceived at frequent intervals, these individuals can be expected to take to social media to complain or to attract attention as these events occur. Unfortunately, these expectations were not supported in the current study. While increased levels of all three traits were associated

with increased frequency of social media management, this study failed to find a mediating effect of interactional justice in these relationships. These results indicate that although those high in these traits do tend to post or update content on social media more frequently, this may not be due to interactional justice. One possible explanation for this is that instances of interactional injustice may be relatively rare in the workplace, regardless of the employee's propensity to perceive it. Another possibility is that while interactional injustices may be perceived more readily, only some of these events compel an employee to react via social media. Perhaps only extreme instances of interactional injustice warrant online reaction or changes to social media content.

While the effects of interactional justice on social media management were intriguing, they were not entirely surprising. A little more intriguing were the effects of emotion regulation on the personality-to-unprofessional social media behavior relationship. Although the examined personality traits have been found in past research to be negatively related to emotion regulation (Anestis, et al., 2009; Bushman, et al., 2001), current results seem to lend little support to these findings. Emotion regulation did not mediate the relationship between personality traits and unprofessional social media behavior, nor did it mediate the relationship between personality traits and social media management. This indicates that the ability to regulate one's emotions may only be a small part of the reason hostile or negative employees exhibit unprofessional behaviors. Furthermore, emotion regulation was a significant moderator of the relationship between interactional justice and unprofessional social media behaviors, but not in the direction that was expected. Previous research indicates that those high in hostility, due to their lack of emotional regulation, would take to social media more readily to attack or seek social support after experiencing a perceived injustice. Results of this study suggest that this may not be the

case. In fact, the opposite may be true. Those with moderate to high levels of emotion regulation were actually more likely to exhibit unprofessional social media behaviors after perceiving interactional injustice than those with low levels. While the current study is unable to fully explain the reasons for this effect, it may be that those higher in emotion regulation exhibit more unprofessional social media behaviors consciously in order to express their dissatisfaction with perceived injustice. Rather than lash out at transgressors in the workplace, they may take to social media to engage in ego-protective or restorative behaviors. This is congruent with the expectations set forth in the current study, as social media may be viewed as the "safer" outlet for unprofessional behaviors, given the choice between expressing these behaviors in the workplace versus expressing them online. Although the current study did not allow for the examination of specific behaviors surrounding the uploading of content, those higher in emotion regulation may go about the process of pasting unprofessional things differently than those low in the trait. Perhaps they take their time in posting content, "sleeping on it," rather than taking immediate action following perceived injustice. Or, they may recognize that they do not feel a sense of belongingness or validation at work, and seek to draw attention to their problems in an environment they view as being more supportive.

Limitations

As with all studies, this study was not free of limitations or sources of error. Comments here will focus on the nature of archival data, HARKing, and correlational studies.

Archival Data

As previously noted, this study used data from a pre-existing dataset obtained from the Study Response Project. While this allowed some reasonable conclusions to be drawn regarding

hypotheses tested in this study, the extent of these conclusions may be limited. This is primarily due to the personality traits, mediators, and outcome variables all being measured using existing measures. If measures had been created specifically to assess each variable, particularly outcome variables, then results may have been more substantial. Outcome variables were assessed by pulling items from the larger social media use scale (Weidner, et al., 2012) to create a composite measure. Thus, some items in the created scale could have been more specific, and additional items would have been beneficial for more thoroughly assessing the construct. For example, the item "Do you have pictures posted of you consuming alcoholic beverages on a SNS?" is generally worded, and does not necessarily tap into "unprofessional behavior," as not all consumption of alcoholic beverages is considered unprofessional (e.g., having a glass of wine at dinner). Clearer results might have been obtained if the item read "Do you have pictures posted of you consuming alcoholic beverages in excess on a social media site?" paired with a second item reading "Do you have pictures posted of yourself while you are visibly intoxicated on a social media site?" Although the current measures were adequate, future research should include more specific and comprehensive measures of the outcome variables.

HARKing

HARKing (Hypothesizing After Results are Known), though not uncommon in scientific literature, is surrounded by debate (e.g., Bem, 1987; Kerr, 1998). While some argue that HARKing enables the author to write the article that makes the most sense after having viewed the data (Bem, 1987), others have pointed out the dangers of this method (Kerr, 1998). As this study used archival data, several initial hypotheses regarding the relationship of personality to unprofessional social media behaviors were either not included in this study or altered once preliminary analyses had been conducted. This is called suppressing loser hypotheses (Kerr,

1998). Although this in no way diminishes the results of this study, it does lead to a lack of communication regarding what did not work (e.g., narcissism as a predictor of unprofessional social media behaviors; workplace incivility as a mediator of the personality trait-unprofessional social media behavior relationship), and may contribute to either an overly broad or overly narrow theoretical perspective (Kerr, 1998).

Correlational Studies

Though measures were administered over a period of time, the data used in this study was not longitudinal. Therefore, as with all correlational data, no causal inferences can be made regarding the results of this study. While it appears that unprofessional social media behavior increases with hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity, this study presents no evidence that the traits lead to these behaviors. Future research should implement experimentation or quasi-experimentation in order to draw stronger inferences regarding causality.

Future Directions

Although the current study provides useful insight as to the relationship between employees' personality and social media behaviors, there are numerous opportunities for expansion and further study of the ideas proposed here. First, whereas the current study examined the personality traits of hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity, it did not explore other negatively valenced traits such as narcissism, impulsivity, or jealousy that may positively correlate with unprofessional social media behavior. Some of these traits (i.e., narcissism) have been previously linked to social media usage (e.g., Leung, 2013; Ljepava, Orr, Locke, & Ross, 2013), and further exploration of these relationships would provide

a better understanding of employees' social media tendencies. Alternatively, future research would benefit by exploring "positive" personality traits, such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, or politeness that may be expected to negatively correlate with unprofessional social media behaviors. It seems not only plausible, but likely that self-monitoring plays a role in behavioral displays on social media, as well. Though the use of archival data did not allow for investigation of this trait, future research should include a measure of self-monitoring in order to assess the degree to which high versus low self-monitors exhibit unprofessional social media behaviors.

Additionally, this study did not account for employees' overall relationships with their coworkers or supervisors. Future studies may find an examination of the moderating effects of employee's emotional relationships and social media contact with coworkers beneficial, as emotional connectedness with work contacts may influence the amount of relational violence expressed towards or in view of them. Regarding mediating effects, this study provides evidence that perceived interactional injustice may lead to unprofessional social media behaviors. However, the mechanism by which this occurs is not fully explored. Future research may wish to utilize a longitudinal design including measures of organizational commitment following justice events to better understand the process by which injustice leads to unprofessional behaviors.

It is possible that these relationships may vary by employment type. Although the sample used did not include any employees who worked fewer than twenty hours per week, there may still be a difference in employees' propensity to use social media to engage their coworkers and workplace. For instance, younger employees who are simply working a "job" may be more apt to exhibit unprofessional behaviors on social media than those pursuing a career. They may also be more likely to post certain types of unprofessional content (e.g., pictures of themselves

consuming alcohol in excess) than older employees. Future studies may want to examine the possible effects of age and job type more closely. Ideally, this and other examinations could be accomplished by connecting with participants directly through social media, allowing for a closer study of posting behaviors without relying on broad self-report measures.

Conclusion

It is well-known that larger public entities such as organizations and politicians use social media as a method of impression management, but little research has been conducted examining employees' utilization of the medium. This study provides an initial step in filling this literature gap, exploring how and why employees use social media as a self-presentation tool in an organizational context. Results of the current study provided further evidence for attribution, social exchange, and ego-defense theories while simultaneously expanding the literature on self-handicapping and brought these perspectives into the digital realm. In support of these viewpoints, hostility, workplace hostile attributional style, and negative affectivity were all shown to be related to unprofessional behaviors on social media, a relationship which was mediated by perceptions of interactional justice. While employees' level of contact with their supervisor moderated the relationship between interactional justice and unprofessional social media behaviors in a manner that ran counter to expectations, plausible reasons for these results have been identified.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COMPLETE SURVEY CONSTRUCTS

Wave 1 Items

Name of Construct	Number of Items
Generalized Self-Efficacy	10
Social Dominance Orientation	16
Right-Wing Authoritarianism	15
Protestant Work Ethic	19
Negative Affectivity*	10
Workplace Hostile Attributional Style*	7
Allocentrism / Idiocentrism	18
Collective Self-Esteem	25
Emotion Regulation*	12
Hostility*	8
Narcissism	16
Agreeableness	10
Neuroticism	10

Note: * indicates items used in the current study. Items were completed by employees only.

Wave 2 Items

Name of Construct	Number of Items
Theory X / Theory Y (Subordinates)	17
Corporate Social Responsibility	18
Organizational Identification	10
Interpersonal Conflict	4
Quantitative Workload	5
Organizational Constraints	11
Transformational / Full Range Leadership	45
Distributive Justice	5
Procedural Justice	7
Interactional Justice*	6
Incivility	22

Note: * indicates items used in the current study. Items were completed by employees only.

Wave 3 Items

Name of Construct	Number of Items
Demographics*	10
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	14
Counterproductive Workplace Behavior	19
Physical Symptoms Inventory	18
Social Media Use*	67

Note: * indicates items used in the current study. Items were completed by employees only.

Wave 4 Items (Supervisor Reported)

Name of Construct	Number of Items
Demographics	10
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	14
Counterproductive Workplace Behavior	19
Theory X / Y (Supervisor)	17

Note: Items in this section were completed by the participants' supervisors.

COMPLETE SOCIAL MEDIA USE ITEMS

Social Media Use Scale (Weidner, Wynne, & O'Brien, 2012)

1. Are you a member of any Social Networking Sites (SNS) such as Facebook, MySpace, LinkedIn, Twitter, or others?
2. Do you have a Facebook account?
3. Do you have a LinkedIn account?
4. Do you have a MySpace account?
5. Do you have a Twitter account?
6. What other SNS do you use?
7. What is your primary SNS?
8. Do you have more than one account for any single SNS you use (e.g., two Facebook profiles, etc.)?
9. About how many "friends" or contacts are you connected with through your SNS?
10. How often do you actively use your LinkedIn account?
11. How often do you update your resume or C.V.?
12. How often do you post status updates on LinkedIn?
13. Have you been recommended by your current manager/supervisor on LinkedIn?
14. Have you ever been recommended by a previous manager/supervisor on your LinkedIn account?
15. Have you been recommended on LinkedIn by a current coworker?
16. Have you ever been recommended on LinkedIn by a previous coworker?
17. How often do you actively use your Facebook account?
18. How often do you actively use your MySpace account?
19. How often do you actively use your Twitter account?
20. How often do you post messages / status updates on your SNS?***
21. How often do you post pictures / videos on your Sites? ***
22. How often do you edit your profile information? ***
23. How often do you change your profile photos? ***
24. How often do you check your SNS while at work?
25. How often do you post status updates that relate to what is going on at your work?***
26. How often do you use your SNS to complain about your job?
27. How often do you use your SNS to complain about a coworker?
28. How often do you seek out / add new friends or contacts?
29. How often do you play games available through your SNS?
30. Do you check your SNS while at work?
31. Does your workplace limit access to your SNS while at work?
32. Are you in contact through your SNS with any of your coworkers?
33. Do you generally feel comfortable adding your coworkers as "friends?"
34. Do you feel comfortable adding your supervisor as a "friend?"
35. Do you have any pictures of you while at your workplace on your SNS?
36. Have you ever posted something negative about someone else on a SNS?
37. Have you ever posted something negative about a coworker on a SNS?**

38. Have you ever posted something negative about your boss on a SNS?**
39. Have you ever posted something negative about your workplace on a SNS?**
40. Do you have pictures posted of you consuming alcoholic beverages on SNS?**
41. Do you have pictures posted of you using illegal drugs on a SNS?**
42. Do you have any pictures posted in which you are performing illegal activities?**
43. Do you have any pictures posted in which you are wearing revealing clothing?
44. Do you have any pictures posted in which you are acting in a way that you would not want your coworkers to see?
45. Do you limit or block your profile?
46. Are you in contact with your supervisor or manager through your SNS?*
47. Do you associate with your manager/supervisor outside of the workplace?
48. How long have you worked under your current manager/supervisor?
49. How long have you been connected with your manager/supervisor through your SNS?
50. How often does your manager comment on your posts on your SNS?
51. How often do you comment on your manager's posts on your SNS?
52. How often do you send messages to each other via your SNS?
53. How often do you have direct contact with your manager/supervisor?
54. How much do you trust your current manager/supervisor?
55. Please rate the extent to which you block or limit your profile from your boss.
56. Please rate the extent to which you block or limit your profile from coworkers.
57. Please rate the extent to which you block or limit your profile from known clients or customers (of your workplace).
58. Please rate the extent to which you block or limit your profile from someone who works at an organization that you are interested in applying to.
59. Have you sent a "friend" request to a supervisor?
60. If yes, was it accepted?
61. Have you ever sent a "friend" request to a coworker?
62. Have you ever received a "friend" request from a coworker?
63. Have you ever sent a "friend" request to a supervisor?
64. If yes, was it accepted?
65. Do you feel that having a SNS has benefited you at work?
66. Do you feel that having a SNS has been a risk factor for your work?
67. Do you feel that you waste time on your SNS while at work?

Note: * indicates item used in the "Supervisor Contact through Social Media" scale
** indicates items used in the "Unprofessional Social Media Behaviors" scale
*** indicates items used in the "Social media Management" scale

SCALES USED IN THIS STUDY

Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire
(Buss & Perry, 1992)

1. I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy.
2. At times I feel I have gotten a raw deal out of life.
3. Other people always seem to get the breaks.
4. I wonder why sometimes I feel so bitter about things.
5. I know that "friends" talk about me behind my back.
6. I am suspicious about overly friendly neighbors.
7. I sometimes feel that people are laughing at me behind my back.
8. When people are especially nice, I wonder what they want.

Workplace Hostile Attributional Style Short Form (WHAS-7)
(Bal & O'Brien, 2010)

1. When coworkers leave me out of social events, it is to hurt my feelings.
2. If coworkers do not appreciate me enough, it is because they are self-centered.
3. If coworkers work slowly on a task I assigned them, it is because they don't like me.
4. If people are laughing at work, I think they are laughing at me.
5. If coworkers ignore me, it is because they are being rude.
6. Coworkers deliberately make my job more difficult.
7. When my things are missing, they have probably been stolen.

Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)
(Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)

1. Distressed
2. Upset
3. Guilty
4. Scared
5. Hostile
6. Irritable
7. Ashamed
8. Nervous
9. Jittery
10. Afraid

Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale
(Gratz & Roemer, 2004)

1. When I'm upset, I have difficulty concentrating.
2. When I'm upset, I have difficulty focusing on other things.
3. When I'm upset, I have difficulty getting work done.
4. When I'm upset, I have difficulty thinking about anything else.
5. When I'm upset, I can still get things done.
6. When I'm upset, I believe that I'll end up feeling very depressed.
7. When I'm upset, I believe that I will remain that way for a long time.
8. When I'm upset, I believe that wallowing in it is all I can do.
9. When I'm upset, it takes me a long time to feel better.
10. When I'm upset, I believe that there is nothing I can do to make myself feel better.
11. When I'm upset, my emotions feel overwhelming.
12. When I'm upset, I start to feel very bad about myself.

Interactional Justice
(Moorman, 1991)

1. Your supervisor considered your viewpoint.
2. Your supervisor was able to suppress personal biases.
3. Your supervisor provided you with timely feedback about the decision and its implications.
4. Your supervisor treated you with kindness and consideration.
5. Your supervisor showed concern for your rights as an employee.
6. Your supervisor took steps to deal with you in a truthful manner.

Unprofessional Social Media Behaviors Scale
(Pulled from Weidner, Wynne, & O'Brien, 2012)

1. Have you ever posted something negative about a coworker on a SNS?
2. Have you ever posted something negative about your boss on a SNS?
3. Have you ever posted something negative about your workplace on a SNS?
4. Do you have any pictures of you using illegal drugs on a SNS?
5. Do you have any pictures posted in which you are performing illegal activities?
6. Do you have pictures posted of you consuming alcoholic beverages on a SNS?

Social Media Management Scale
(Pulled from Weidner, Wynne, & O'Brien, 2012)

1. How often do you post messages/status updates on your social media sites?
2. How often do you post pictures/videos on your social media sites?
3. How often do you edit your profile information?
4. How often do you change your profile photos?
5. How often do you post status updates that relate to what is going on at your work?

REFERENCES

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267–299). New York: Academic Press.

Allred, K. G., Bies, R. J., Lewicki, R. J., & Sheppard, B. H. (1999). *Research on negotiations in organizations*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Altuntas, S., & Baykal, U. (2010). Relationship between nurses organizational trust levels and their organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 42*(2), 186-194.

Anestis, M. D., Anestis, J. C., Selby, E. A., & Joiner, T. E. (2009). Anger rumination across forms of aggression. *Personality and Individual Differences, 46*(2), 192-196.

Aquino, K., & Bradfield, M. (2000). Perceived victimization in the workplace: The role of situational factors and victim characteristics. *Organization Science, 11*(5), 525-537.

Aquino, K., Douglas, S., & Martinko, M. J. (2004). Overt anger in response to victimization: Attributional style and organizational norms as moderators. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 9*(2), 152-164.

Arnold, L. (2002). Assessing professional behavior: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Academic Medicine, 77*, 502–515.

Bal, A., & O'Brien, K. E. (2010, April). Validation of the Hostile Attributional Style Short Form. Paper presented at the 25th annual meeting of the Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology, Atlanta, GA.

Barclay, L. J., Skarlicki, D. P., & Pugh, S. D. (2005). Exploring the role of emotions in injustice perceptions and retaliation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(4), 629-643.

Barsky, A., & Kaplan, S. A. (2007). If you feel bad, it's unfair: A quantitative synthesis of affect and organizational justice perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 286-295.

Baumeister, R.F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, C., & Vohs, K.D. (2001). Bad is stronger than good. *Review of General Psychology, 5*, 323-370.

Baumeister, R. F., Heatherton, T. F., & Tice, D. M. (1993). When ego threats lead to self-regulation failure: Negative consequences of high self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64*(1), 141-156.

Ben-Zur, H. (2009). Coping styles and affect. *International Journal of Stress Management, 16*(2), 87-101.

Bennett, W. L. (2012). The personalization of politics: Political identity, social media, and changing patterns of participation. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 644*(1), 20-39.

Berglas, S., & Jones, E. E. (1978). Drug choice as a self-handicapping strategy in response to noncontingent success. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36*(4), 405-417.

Berscheid, E., Boye, D., & Walster, E. (1968). Retaliation as a means of restoring equity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 10*(4), 370-376.

Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. F. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & M. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Research on negotiations in organizations* (Vol. 1, pp. 43–55). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Benard, S. (2013). Reputation systems, aggression, and deterrence in social interaction. *Social Science Research, 42*(1), 230-245.

Berkowitz, L. (1990). On the formation and regulation of anger and aggression: A cognitive-neoassociationistic analysis. *American Psychologist, 45*(4), 494-503.

Besser, A., & Zeigler-Hill, V. (2010). The influence of pathological narcissism on emotional and motivational responses to negative events: The roles of visibility and concern about humiliation. *Journal of Research in Personality, 44*(4), 520-534.

Binder, H., Howes, A., & Sutcliffe, A. (2009). The problem of conflicting social spheres: Effects of network structure on experienced tension in social network sites. *Proceedings of ACM CHI 2009* (pp. 965–974). New York, NY: ACM.

Blau, P. M. (1964). Justice in social exchange. *Sociological Inquiry, 34*(2), 193-206.

Bohner, G., & Weinerth, T. (2001). Negative affect can increase or decrease message scrutiny: The affect interpretation hypothesis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27*(11), 1417-1428.

Bond, A. J., Ruaro, L., & Wingrove, J. (2006). Reducing anger induced by ego threat: Use of vulnerability expression and influence of trait characteristics. *Personality and Individual Differences, 40*(6), 1087-1097.

Boyd, D. (2008). Taken out of context: American teen sociality in networked publics. Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley.

Brown, T. J., & Sumner, K. E. (2006). Perceptions and punishments of workplace aggression: The role of aggression content, context, and perceiver variables. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*(10), 2509-2531.

Bushman, B. J., & Anderson, C. A. (2002). Violent video games and hostile expectations: A test of the general aggression model. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28*(12), 1679-1686.

Bushman, B. J., Baumeister, R. F., & Phillips, C. M. (2001). Do people aggress to improve their mood? Catharsis beliefs, affect regulation, opportunity, and aggressive responding. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*, 17ity.

Buss, A. H. & Perry M. (1992). The Aggression Questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology (63)*, 452–459.

Chang, E. C., Sanna, L. J., & Yang, K. (2003). Optimism, pessimism, affectivity, and psychological adjustment in US and Korea: A test of a mediation model. *Personality and Individual Differences, 34*(7), 1195-1208.

Chen, P. Y., & Spector, P. E. (1991). Negative affectivity as the underlying cause of correlations between stressors and strains. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(3), 398-407.

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*(2), 278-321.

Crant, J. M. (1996). Doing more harm than good: When is impression management likely to evoke a negative response? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 26*(16), 1454-1471.

Cropanzano, R., & Randall, M. L. (1993). Injustice and work behavior: A historical review. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 3–20). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dodge, K. A., & Coie, J. D. (1987). Social-information-processing factors in reactive and proactive aggression in children's peer groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53*(6), 1146-1158.

Dodge, K. A., & Crick, N. R. (1990). Social information-processing bases of aggressive behavior in children. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 16,* 8-22.

Felson, R. B. (1978). Aggression as impression management. *Social Psychology, 41*(3), 205-213.

Försterling, F., Preikschas, S., & Agthe, M. (2007). Ability, luck, and looks: An evolutionary look at achievement ascriptions and the sexual attribution bias. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92*(5), 775-788.

Gawronski, B. (2004). Theory-based bias correction in dispositional inference: The fundamental attribution error is dead, long live the correspondence bias. *European Review of Social Psychology, 15*, 83-217.

Giancola, P. R. (1995). Evidence for dorsolateral and orbital pre-fontal cortical involvement in the expression of aggressive behavior. *Aggressive Behavior, 21,*431-450.

Gilbert, D. T., McNulty, S. E., Giuliano, T. A., & Benson, J. E. (1992). Blurry words and fuzzy deeds: The attribution of obscure behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 62*(1), 18-25.

Gray J. A. (1994). Personality dimensions and emotion systems. In P. Ekman & R. Davidson (Eds.), *The nature of emotion: Fundamental questions* (pp. 329-331). New York: Oxford University Press.

Gratz, K. L., & Roemer, L. (2004). Multidimensional assessment of emotion regulation and dysregulation: Development, factor structure, and initial validation of the difficulties in emotion regulation scale. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment, 26*(1), 41-54.

Greenberg, L., & Barling, J. (1999). Predicting employee aggression against coworkers, subordinates and supervisors: The roles of person behaviors and perceived workplace factors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(6), 897-913.

Gross, J. J. (1998). The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Review of General Psychology, 2*(3), 271-299.

Goerke, M., Möller, J., Schulz-Hardt, S., Napiersky, U., & Frey, D. (2004). "It's not my fault-but only I can change it": Counterfactual and prefactual thoughts of managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(2), 279-292.

Goffman, E. (1959). *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*. New York, NY: Anchor Books.

Harder, J. W. (1991). Equity theory versus expectancy theory: The case of major league baseball free agents. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(3), 458-464.

Harris, R. N., Snyder, C. R., Higgins, R. L., & Schrag, J. L. (1986). Enhancing the prediction of self-handicapping. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1191-1199.

Hayes, A.F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical mediation analysis in the new millennium. *Communication Monographs, 76*, 408-420.

Hayes, A.F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Hewlin, P. F. (2009). Wearing the cloak: Antecedents and consequences of creating facades of conformity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(3), 727-741.

Hip-Fabek, I. (2005). The impact of self-handicapping strategies use on the impression formation. *Review of Psychology,12*(2), 125-132.

Hirt, E. R., Deppe, R. K., & Gordon, L. J. (1991). Self-reported versus behavioral self-handicapping: Empirical evidence for a theoretical distinction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61*(6), 981-991.

Hirt, E. R., McCrea, S. M., & Boris, H. I. (2003). "I know you self-handicapped last exam": Gender differences in reactions to self-handicapping. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84*(1), 177-193.

Hogan, B. (2010). The presentation of self in the age of social media: Distinguishing performances and exhibitions online. *Bulletin of Science, Technology & Society, 30*, 377–386.

Houghton, D. J., & Joinson, A. N. (2010). Privacy, social network sites, and social relations. *Journal of Technology in Human Services, 28*, 74–94.

Isleib, R. A., Vuchinich, R. E., & Tucker, J. A. (1988). Performance attributions and changes in self-esteem following self-handicapping with alcohol consumption. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 6*(1), 88-103.

Ito, T. A., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2005). Variations on a human universal: Individual differences in positivity offset and negativity bias. *Cognition and Emotion, 19*(1), 1-26.

Judge, T. A., Scott, B. A., & Ilies, R. (2006). Hostility, job attitudes, and workplace deviance: Test of a multilevel model.*Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(1), 126-138.

Katahn, M., & Pagano, D. F. (1965). Effects of shock, ego-threat, and neutral conditions on affective experience during paired-associates learning. *Psychonomic Science, 3*(12), 551-552.

Kelley, H. H. (1973). The processes of causal attribution. *American Psychologist, 28*(2), 107-128.

Kolditz, T. A., & Arkin, R. M. (1995) Self-handicapping and dimensions of perfectionism: Self-presentation vs. self-protection. *Journal of Research in Personality, 29*, 461-474.

Larsen, R .J. (2002). Differential contributions of positive and negative affect to subjective well-being. In J.A. Da Silva, E.H. Matsushima, and N.P. Riberio-Filho (Eds.), *Annual meeting of the International Society for Psychophysics* (vol. 18, pp. 186-190). Rio de Janeiro, Brazil: Editora Legis Summa Ltda.

Larsen, R. (2009). The contributions of positive and negative affect to emotional well-being. *Psychological Topics, 18*(2), 247-266.

Lazarus, R. S., Averill, J. R., Opton, E. M., & Arnold, M. (1970). *Feelings and emotions*. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Leary, M. R., & Shepperd, J. A. (1986). Behavioral self-handicaps versus self-reported handicaps: A conceptual note. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1265-1268.

Legant, P., & Mettee, D. R. (1973). Turning the other cheek versus getting even: Vengeance, equity, and attraction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 25*(2), 243-253.

Leung, L. (2013). Generational differences in content generation in social media: The roles of the gratifications sought and of narcissism. *Computers in Human Behavior, 29*(3), 997-1006.

Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). The social psychology of procedural justice. New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Ljepava, N., Orr, R. R., Locke, S., & Ross, C. (2013). Personality and social characteristics of Facebook non-users and frequent users. *Computers in Human Behavior, 29*(4), 1602-1607.

Madden, M., & Zickhur, K. (2011). 65% of online adults use social networking sites. Pew Internet Project, Washington, DC.

Mantel, M. R. (1994). *Ticking bombs: Diffusing violence in the workplace*. Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin.

Martin, J. L. (2009). Formation and stabilization of vertical hierarchies among adolescents: towards a quantitative ethology of dominance among humans. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 72*, 241–264.

Marwick, A. E., & Boyd, D. (2011). I tweet honestly, I tweet passionately: Twitter users, context collapse, and the imagined audience. *New Media & Society, 13*, 114–133.

McCrea, S. M. (2008). Self-handicapping, excuse making, and counterfactual thinking: Consequences for self-esteem and future motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 95*(2), 274-292.

Milich, R., & Dodge, K. A. (1984). Social information processing in child psychiatric populations. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 2*(47), 1-490.

Miller, A. R., & Tucker, C. (2013). Active social media management: The case of health care. *Information Systems Research, 24*(1), 52-70.

Monteith, M., Berkowitz, L., Kruglanski, A., & Blair, C. (1990). The influence of physical discomfort on experienced anger and anger-related ideas, judgments, and memories. Unpublished manuscript, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(6), 845.

Ng, T. W. H., Feldman, D. C., & Lam, S. S. K. (2010). Psychological contract breaches, organizational commitment, and innovation-related behaviors: A latent growth modeling approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(4), 744-751.

Ojha, H. (1995). Hostility as a function of gender, education and caste. *Psychological Studies, 40*(1), 57-59.

Orobio de Castro, B., Veerman, J. W., Koops, W., Bosch, J. D., & Monshouwer, H. J. (2002). Hostile attribution of intent and aggressive behavior: A meta-analysis. *Child Development, 73*(3), 916-934.

Pate, R. L. (2012). Invisible discrimination: Employers, social media sites and passwords in the U.S. *International Journal of Discrimination and the Law, 12*(3), 133-146.

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*(7), 777-796.

Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods, 40*, 879-891.

Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *42*, 185-227.

Prkachin, K. M., & Silverman, B. E. (2002). Hostility and facial expression in young men and women: Is social regulation more important than negative affect? *Health Psychology, 21*(1), 33-39.

Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S., Sideris, J., Stubing, M. J. (1993). Emotional expression and the reduction of motivated cognitive bias: Evidence from cognitive dissonance and distancing from victimsivated cogn. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64*, 177–186.

Ratanawongsa, N., Wright, S. M., & Carrese, J. A. (2008). Well-being in residency: Effects on relationships with patients, interactions with colleagues, performance, and motivation. *Patient Education and Counseling, 72*(2), 194-200.

Rhodewalt, F., Sanbonmatsu, D. M., Tschanz, B., Feick, D. L., & Waller, A. (1995). Self-handicapping and interpersonal trade-offs: The effects of claimed self-handicaps on observers' performance evaluations and feedback. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 21*(10), 1042-1050.

Riggio, R. E., Watring, K. P., & Throckmorton, B. (1993). Social skills, social support, and psychosocial adjustment. *Personality and Individual Differences, 15*(3), 275-280.

Robinson, S. L. (1996). Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 41*(4), 574-599.

Rospenda, K. M., Richman, J. A., & Shannon, C. A. (2006). Patterns of workplace harassment, gender, and use of services: An update. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*(4), 379-393.

Savitz, E. (2011 March 14). Aflac fires Gilbert Gottfried over Japan earthquake tweets. *Forbes.* Retrieved from http://www.forbes.com/sites/ericsavitz/2011/03/14/aflac-fires-gilbert-gotfried-over-japan-earthquake-tweets/.

Schaubroeck, J., Walumbwa, F. O., Ganster, D. C., & Kepes, S. (2007). Destructive leader traits and the neutralizing influence of an "enriched" job. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*(3), 236-251.

Schlenker, B. R. (2003). Self-presentation. In M. R. Leary & J. P. Tangney (Eds.), *Handbook of self and identity* (pp. 492–518). New York, NY: Guilford.

Schmeichel, B. J., & Demaree, H. A. (2010). Working memory capacity and spontaneous emotion regulation: High capacity predicts self-enhancement in response to negative feedback. *Emotion, 10*(5), 739-744.

Shepperd, J. A., & Arkin, R.M. (1990). Shyness and self-presentation. In W. R. Crozer (Ed.), *Shyness and embarrassment - Perspectives from social psychology*. Cambridge University Press.

Shore, L. M., & Wayne, S. J. (1993). Commitment and employee behavior: Comparison of affective commitment and continuance commitment with perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(5), 774-780.

Society for Human Resource Management. (2012). *Managing and leveraging workplace use of social media*. Retrieved from: http://www.shrm.org/templatestools/toolkits/pages/managingsocialmedia.aspx.

Stanton, J. M., Stam, K. R., Guzman, I., & Caldera, C. (2003, October). Examining the linkage between organizational commitment and information security. *Proceedings of the IEEE Systems, Man, and Cybernetics Conference*, Washington, DC.

Spector, P. E. (2011). The relationship of personality to counterproductive work behavior (CWB): An integration of perspectives. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*(4), 342-352.

Szmajke, A. (1998). Self-handicapping as a tactic of impression management: Is it effective?. *Polish Psychological Bulletin,29*(3), 165-179.

Tan, H. H., & Lim, A. K. H. (2009). Trust in coworkers and trust in organizations. *Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied, 143*(1), 45-66.

Tremblay, P. F., & Belchevski, M. (2004). Did the instigator intend to provoke? A key moderator in the relation between trait aggression and aggressive behavior. *Aggressive Behavior, 30*(5), 409-424.

Tucker, J. A., Vuchinich, R. E., & Sobell, M. B. (1981). Alcohol consumption as a self-handicapping strategy. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 90*(3), 220-230.

Vitak, J., & Ellison, N. (2013). ''There's a network out there you might as well tap'': Exploring the benefits of and barriers to exchanging informational and support-based resources on Facebook. *New Media & Society, 15*(2), 243-259.

Walker, H. M. (2010). Relational aggression in schools: Implications for future research on screening intervention and prevention. *School Psychology Review, 39*(4), 594-600.

Walters, G. D. (2005). *Proactive and reactive aggression: A lifestyle view*. Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science Publishers.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1984). Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive emotional states. *Psychological Bulletin, 96*(3), 465-490.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measure of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 1063–1107.

Weinberg, B. D., de Ruyter, K., Dellarocas, C., Buck, M., & Keeling, D. I. (2013). Destination social business: Exploring an organization's journey with social media, collaborative community and expressive individuality. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 27*(4), 299-310.

Weissman, D. E. (2003). Care near the end of life: What is unprofessional behavior?. *Journal of Palliative Medicine, 6*(1), 1-3.

Williams, S. (1999). The effects of distributive and procedural justice on performance. *The Journal of Psychology, 133*(2), 183-193.

Whittaker, Z. (2012). Facebook Hits 1 Billion Active User Milestone. Retrieved from http://news.cnet.com/.

Wright, L., Newman, R. A., Meyer, D., & May, K. (1993). Gender differences in negative affectivity among university faculty members. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 24*(4), 497-499.

Wu, L., Zhang, H., Chiu, R. K., Kwan, H. K., & He, X. (2013, February 26). Hostile attribution bias and negative reciprocity beliefs exacerbate incivility's effects on interpersonal deviance. *Journal of Business Ethics.*

Yagil, D., Ben-Zur, H., & Tamir, I. (2011). Do employees cope effectively with abusive supervision at work? An exploratory study. *International Journal of Stress Management, 18*(1), 5-23.

Zeidner, M. (1994). Personal and contextual determinants of coping and anxiety in an evaluative situation: A prospective study. *Personality and Individual Differences, 16*(6), 899-918.

Zelenski, J. M., & Larsen, R. J. (1999). Susceptibility to affect: A comparison of three personality taxonomies. *Journal of Personality, 67*(5), 761-791.

Zelenski, J. M., & Larsen, R. J. (2002). Predicting the future: How affect-related personality traits influence likelihood judgments of future events. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28*(7), 1000-1010.

Zinko, R. A. (2013). A continued examination of the inverse relationship between political skill and strain reactions: Exploring reputation as a mediating factor. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 43*(8), 1750-1759.

Zinko, R. A., Ferris, G. R., Blass, F. R., & Laird, M. D. (2007). Toward a theory of reputation in organizations. In J. J. Martocchio (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (163-204). Oxford, UK: JAI Press/Elsevier Science Ltd.